

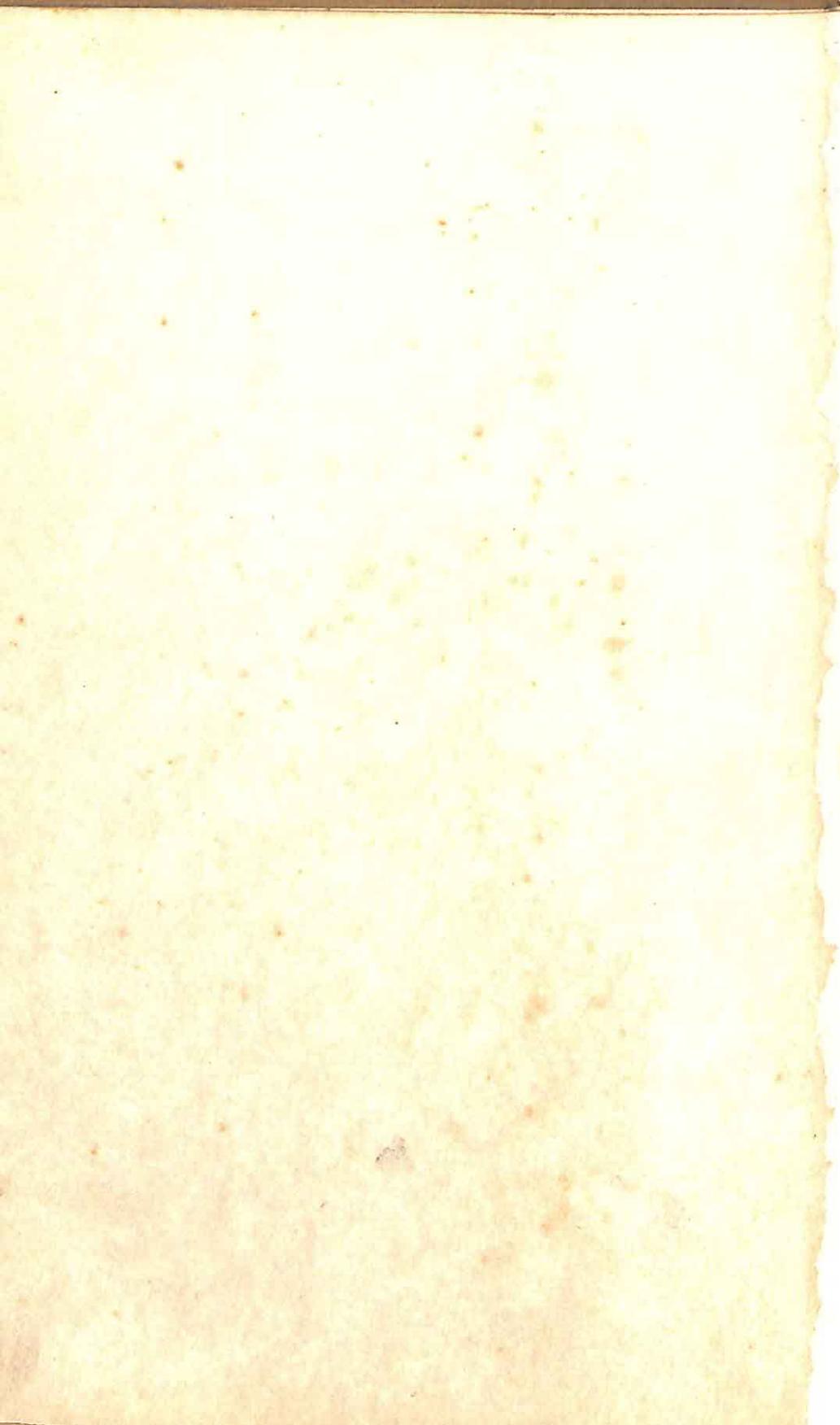
Administration

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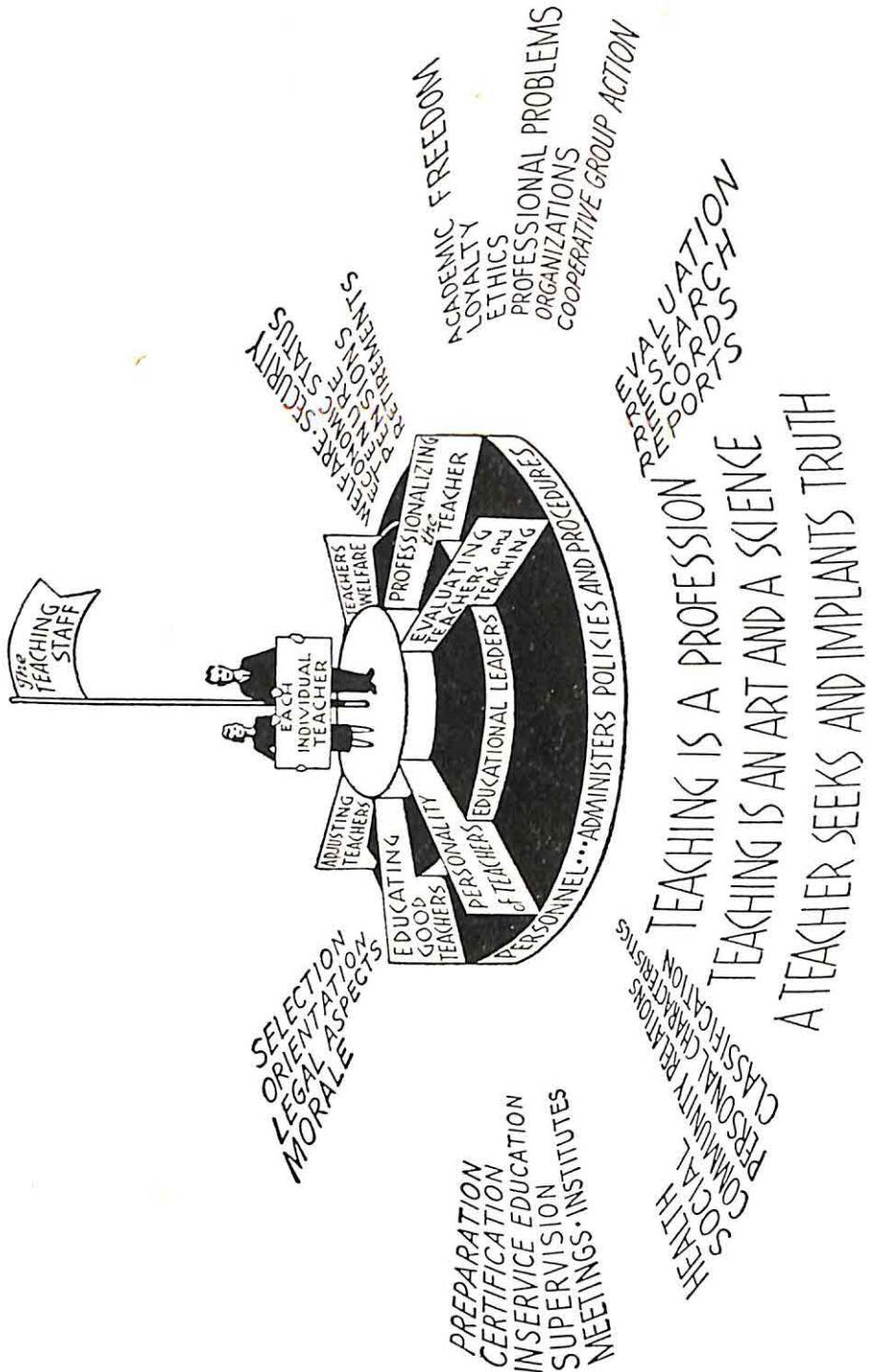
ADMINISTRATION
AND THE TEACHER

EDUCATION FOR LIVING SERIES

Under the Editorship of

H. H. REMMERS





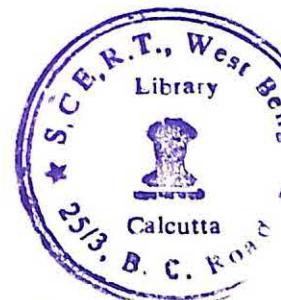
Administration and the Teacher

WILLIAM A. YEAGER

Professor of Education

Director of Courses in School Administration

University of Pittsburgh



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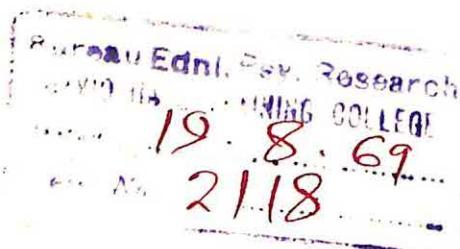
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*NOTE: The following tables appearing in the text may be modified as follows:

TABLE 7 (p. 147)

Slight percentage changes appear in methods of recruiting teachers as reported in 1951 (National Education Association "Teacher Personnel Practices 1950-51: Appointment and Termination Service," *Research Bulletin* XXX No. 1 February 1952, 15 ff.)

TABLE 10 and 11 (p. 346)

Data for 1953-54 are available in National Education Association "Economic Status of Teachers in 1953-54" (Special Memo) Research Division, Washington: the Association (December 1953)

TABLE 12 (p. 389)

The following states (1953) have Social Security or a combination of Social Security and a State retirement system: Iowa, Mississippi, Oregon, South Dakota (Social Security only), Utah, Virginia, and Wyoming.

EDITOR'S FOREWORD

In this, his second book on administration in the *Education for Living Series*, Professor Yeager explores and defines in detail and with the same breadth and scholarship as he did in his *Administration and the Pupil*, another large aspect of educational administration. In the present book he is concerned with all aspects of administering teacher personnel, defining its nature and limits. Always, however, he keeps in focus the basic purpose it serves—that of improving instruction to the end of implementing individual and social values in a democratic society.

Educational administration at best is a complex occupation. The administrator is expected at various times and by various interests to play many different roles. He must, by the nature of his position, be (1) a teacher of teachers, and, if a superintendent, of the board of education and of the public as well; (2) a supervisor not only of teachers but of service personnel; (3) a disciplinarian, just but effective; (4) a psychological diagnostician at least to the extent of being able to detect maladjustments, especially of teachers, that may hinder effective instruction and achievement of desired educational goals; (5) a financier in organizing a budget; (6) an educational philosopher and statesman to the end of making wise and educationally valid allocation of budget items; (7) a lawyer at least to the extent of knowing his own rights, responsibilities, and legal liabilities as well as those of all school personnel; (8) a sociologist and cultural anthropologist to the extent at least of being able to assess the kinds and amounts of social forces operative in relation to the schools; (9) a technical expert in educational measurement and evaluation, especially of the qualifications and performance of school personnel; (10) a public relations expert—or, if you prefer, a politician—who can detect the slightest change in the climate of opinion and prevent any untoward changes from affecting adversely the work of the

school; (11) an expert in group dynamics to the end of working effectively with staff, pupils, and public; and (12) the educational leader artist who orchestrates all of the personnel and facilities at his disposal into a harmonious organization for achieving maximally valid goals of education.

Demanding as it is at best, the job of the administrator is particularly difficult at mid-twentieth century. Elementary and secondary school enrollments will have increased from 24,546,000 in 1947 to 34,091,000 in 1960, or approximately 40 per cent. Teacher shortages, especially at the elementary level, are a disturbing fact. The building of schools, neglected during World War II, is not keeping pace with school population growth. While the absolute amount of money devoted to education has increased, the relative amount as a proportion of our income has decreased since 1940. Less tangibly but no less real, ideological tensions and controversy have sharply increased not only in a rapidly shrinking world but within our own country as well, and are perceived by many as a threat to freedom to teach and learn basic to a democracy. These and other problems face the educational administrator at mid-century and after.

No profession has as great an impact upon the social, economic, and political life of modern society as does teaching. What teaching can accomplish is in no small measure dependent upon the educational administrator. No occupation, then, carries greater social responsibility.

Practicing as well as prospective educational administrators will profit from reading Professor Yeager's book. They will find in it many guides to the better performance of their tasks. While it is intended chiefly for them, any thoughtful and responsible citizen will also be interested in and read with profit at least some sections of the book. Some parts might well be made required reading for both prospective teachers and teachers in service.

H. H. REMMERS

PREFACE

The theme that runs throughout this text is that teaching is one of the great professions. It is one of the oldest professions, and although there have been many vicissitudes in its existence through the centuries, it has maintained its position of importance in the social matrix. The pages of history abound with the lives and influences of great teachers who through service and sacrifice have led children and youth to better living.

The personnel function in educational administration concerns two persons, namely, the teacher and the pupil. Between the two there is a common bond or relationship, characterized by such terms as teaching and learning. In effect, they are inseparable. There can be no teacher without the learner, nor can there be a learner without a teacher. The administration of both of these functions is one of the principal functions of school administration. As each is administered more efficiently the instructional process is thereby improved.

This text concerns primarily the administration of the teaching personnel. It assumes that teaching is a great profession and that its administration must be approached from that point of view. Educational leadership of a high order is essential in administering the complexities of its professional status and solving the many problems associated with that administration. Many principles have been developed which should be applied in that administration. In fact, as educational leadership improves, the quality of teachers and teaching thereby improves. As teachers understand better their own profession and assist in solving their own problems, the profession becomes more attractive and efficient. The level of compensation is raised and capable persons are attracted to it. Teachers have greater respect for themselves as they are the more respected.

The public school has come to be the principal socializing institution for the development of children. It is its purpose to guard, cher-

ish, and advance our way of living to the end that that way of living can be improved with each generation. The teacher is the principal agent for the accomplishment of this purpose, and it is for this purpose that good teachers must be developed and good teaching prevail. It is not possible to discuss teachers apart from the society in which they serve, nor the pupils apart from the total environment in which they live. Throughout the text these social implications are constantly stressed.

In writing this text the author desires to acknowledge many sources of information and many valuable suggestions received from writers in the field. He is especially indebted to his many students who through the years have contributed through materials and ideas. Suggestions have been received from many friends and associates. Acknowledgment is made to numerous publishers of textbooks, magazines, and reports who permitted quotations from their publications. These are indicated in the body of the text. Specific acknowledgment is made to the National Education Association, Willard S. Elsbree, Ward G. Reeder, and others; and to James, George, Iris, and Rosemary. Finally, thanks are due to the author's wife for stimulating encouragement. Whatever shortcomings the book possesses are entirely his own.

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

December, 1953

WILLIAM A. YEAGER

P A R T I

Teaching

as a

Profession

Development of Teaching as a Profession

THE pages of history record the individual achievements of many great men who as teachers have had a profound influence upon the social development of their time. These men have been the nucleus around which a great profession has been developed, and has served to give character and direction to a fundamental and influential social service. Without this service man would hardly have been able to reproduce his social heritage, or develop higher levels of social being in the advance of civilization. Great teachers stand out head and shoulders above their fellows. We cannot, however, ascribe to teachers as a class similar dignity or social acceptance. Teachers have not always been fully appreciated for their services to humanity, nor accepted even as equals with other social leaders. For teaching to develop into a profession as one usually thinks of a profession has been a long and tedious process. Now recognized, however, as a profession and increasing constantly in dignity and social acceptance, teaching is considered among the four or five great professions of mankind.

Since this discussion is predicated upon the assumption that teaching has now become a great profession, the function of administering teachers as members of a profession must be approached as such. This concept carries with it the necessity of understanding (1) a profession, its nature and scope; and (2) the peculiar characteristics of teaching as one of the great professions. Having comprehended this professional approach, the problems of the teaching profession can be best understood and administered.

This chapter will consider (1) development of the professions;

(2) the nature of a profession; (3) specific nature of the teaching profession; (4) the teaching profession in relation to other professions; (5) the science, art, and ideals of the teaching profession; and (6) the nature of the task of administering the teacher personnel.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROFESSIONS

The Guilds

The origin of the professions is lost somewhere in the shadowy mysteries of the Middle Ages. During the eleventh century a great movement toward associations of crafts and vocations swept like a wave over the cities of Europe.¹ The movement led to the formation of guilds which were organized around many aspects of social life and included those who were engaged in the performance of specialized functions and who earned their livelihood through carrying on specialized crafts. These guilds included all types of occupations, and extended even to teachers and students. As early as 1200 these groups banded together "after the manner of mediaeval traders and craftsmen into exclusive societies which may fairly be described as gilds of learning."² In this manner the universities arose, being governed largely by regulations emanating from within the guilds.

Other professions had origins which can only be understood as one studies them individually. Medicine is usually traced to Hippocrates (460 B.C.) through the Hippocratic oath, although its acceptance as a science is of much more recent origin. Craft organizations of physicians and lawyers existed in the Middle Ages. Addison, writing early in the eighteenth century, spoke of the three professions of divinity, law, and physic (medicine). Other groups, now generally accepted as professions including teaching, had not yet risen to the professional stature of the "big three." The guilds of the Middle Ages continued as potent forces for the control of their crafts until the Industrial Revolution. About that time a chain of circumstances with which the student of history is familiar brought about a major change in the economic life of the then-known world. During these centuries, each guild developed its own form of organiza-

¹ A. M. Carr-Saunders and P. A. Wilson, *The Professions*, London, Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1933, p. 289.

² G. Unwin, *The Gilds and Companies of London*, 3rd ed., London, G. Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1938, pp. 372-389.

tion and controlled its admittance to membership through selective apprenticeship and its own standards of competency.

Origins of Teachers and Teaching

Teaching as an occupation can be traced to ancient times. Even in primitive society the patriarch, priest, or medicine man assumed the role of "teacher," his objective being "social reproduction" and the method generally that of unconscious imitation. Memorization was incidental to the process with little attempt at rationalization. In Biblical times, the rabbi (teacher) was held in great esteem for his learning and influence. Jesus became known as Rabboni, meaning the master teacher (John 20:16). Paul of Tarsus was brought up "at the feet of Gamaliel and taught according to the perfect manner of the law of the fathers" (Acts 22:3). In Greece the zeal for learning attracted the Sophists and other intellectuals whose influence upon social understanding was highly significant, largely because of their extreme individualism. Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle emerged as the greatest teachers of their time. They employed the individuality of the teacher and his tremendous influence upon contemporary life and thought. In Rome teachers were similarly held in high regard, and were, for a time, recipients of special privileges and distinctions, as well as state support. In the Middle Ages teaching became associated with the Church, and the priests became the teachers. Certain orders within the Church became associated with the teaching function. The rise of the universities, as we have seen, gave a great impetus to teaching, and the names of great teachers associated with them persist to this day.³

While teaching as a social function was occasionally assigned to specific groups, such as priests or Sophists, outstanding teachers were known principally as individuals and not necessarily associated with a profession, that is, a "calling." Even this recognition came gradually, as only those associated with advanced education (adults) were recognized as professors. It was not until the popularization of education through the rise of colleges and academies, and particularly the public schools, that teaching seems to have been recognized as a profession.

³ Examples are William of Champeaux, Abelard, Peter the Lombard, and St. Thomas Aquinas. See E. P. Cubberley, *The History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, chaps. 8, 9.

Teachers of Younger Children

Much of what has been said above concerning the high regard in which the teacher was held applied to the teachers of adults. It did not apply with equal respect to teachers of younger children. In fact the degraded origin in ancient Greece of the teacher (pedagogue, literally to lead a child) of young children, who was generally a slave, has left its mark upon the modern teacher. While these tutors were generally educated men, their social status was decidedly inferior. The elementary teacher of early modern times enjoyed neither an adequate preparation nor a desirable social status. "The evolution of the elementary school teacher of today out of the church sexton, bell ringer, or grave digger, or out of the artisan, cripple, or old dame, who added school teaching to other employment in order to live," as Cubberley⁴ describes the situation, is reading not to our current liking. He further states: "In 1722 country school masters in Prussia were ordered selected from tailors, weavers, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, and carpenters, and in 1738 they were granted the tailoring monopoly in their villages to help them to live. Later Frederick the Great ordered that his crippled and superannuated soldiers should be given teaching positions in the elementary vernacular schools of Prussia." Cubberley succinctly sums it up when he states: "Teachers in the elementary schools everywhere in the eighteenth century were few in number, poor in quality, and occupied but a lowly position in the social scale."⁵ Perhaps the rise of the common school was much too rapid a movement to be accompanied by the contemporary rise of a professional teaching body, demanding the respect of the "profession." This had to await the development of teacher education with its corresponding emphasis on specific knowledges, skills, and ideals.

WHAT IS A PROFESSION?

Definitions

We come now to consider the nature of a profession in order to have a better understanding of its significance. It must be remembered that the professions, as a term, grew out of a particular voca-

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 446.⁵ *Ibid.*

tion or calling. This thought has characterized *Webster's* definition as follows:

The occupation, if not purely commercial, mechanical, agricultural, or the like, to which one devotes oneself; a calling in which one professes to have acquired some special knowledge used by way either of instructing, guiding, or advising others or of serving them in some art; as the profession of arms, of teaching, of chemist. The three professions of theology, law, and medicine . . . Broadly, one's principal calling, vocation, or employment.

But the significance of a profession lies deeper than that of a mere calling. It calls for certain attainments, knowledges, and skills with prerequisites and qualifications as well as accepted practices. These thoughts are brought into the following definition from the *Century Dictionary*.

The calling or occupation which one professes to understand and to follow; vocation; specifically, a vocation in which a professed knowledge of some department of science or learning is used by its practical application to affairs of others, either in advising, building, or teaching them, or in serving their interests or welfare in the practice of an art founded on it. Formerly theology, law, and medicine were specifically known as the *professions*; but, as the applications of science and learning are extended to other departments of affairs, other vocations also receive the name. The word implies professed attainments in special knowledge, as distinguished from mere skill; a practical dealing with affairs, as distinguished from mere study or investigation; and an application of such knowledge for others as a vocation, as distinguished from its pursuit for one's own purposes. In professions strictly so called a preliminary examination as to qualifications is usually demanded by law or usage, and a license or other official authority founded thereon requires . . . The collective body of persons engaged in a calling; as, practices disgraceful to the *profession*; to be at the head of one's *profession*.

Still other aspects of a profession are indicated in the following opinion by Abraham Flexner, who emphasized its dynamic nature, its social purpose, its disciplines, and its scientific nature.

The criteria of a profession are: a free, resourceful, and unhampered intelligence applied to problems and seeking to understand and master them; resort to the laboratory and seminar for a constantly fresh supply of facts and a steady stream of ideas emanating from these sources a

definite and practical object; a responsibility at once large and personal, and altruistic motivation; a technique capable of communication through an orderly and highly specialized educational discipline; a highly democratic organization explicitly meant for the advancement of the common social interest; and a form of expression and record that is scientific rather than journalistic in character.⁶

Roscoe Pound, himself a lawyer, characterized a profession as an "organized calling in which men pursue some learned art and are united in the pursuit of it as a public service—none the less a public service because they make a livelihood thereby."⁷ Here he has emphasized organization, learning, and a spirit of public service and adds that the gaining of a livelihood must always be subordinated to the larger professional spirit. This spirit of public service has been particularly emphasized by Palmer when he speaks of a profession as the exercise of powers beneficial to mankind.⁸

Horton's Characteristics

In addition to these definitions of a profession, we have included here in contrast the characteristics of a profession as set forth by a recent writer, Horton.⁹ Referring to *the characteristics* of the profession of law, medicine, theology, and advanced teaching, he states:

1. A profession must satisfy an indispensable social need and be based upon well-established and socially accepted scientific principles.
2. It must demand an adequate pre-professional and cultural training. (Today a two-year college course is generally required.)
3. It must demand the possession of a body of specialized and systematized knowledge.
4. It must give evidence of needed skills which the general public does not possess; that is, skills which are partly native and partly acquired.
5. It must have developed a scientific technique which is the result of tested experience.
6. It must require the exercise of discretion and judgment as to the time and manner of the performance of duty. This is in contrast to

⁶ Summarized from a paper read before the National Conference of Social Work (copied with permission from *The Family* for April, 1939).

⁷ Roscoe Pound, "What Is A Profession?" *Review of Reviews*, December, 1936, pp. 84-85.

⁸ George Herbert Palmer, *The Ideal Teacher*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1908.

⁹ Byrne J. Horton, "The Professor; Ten Criteria or Earmarks of a Genuine Profession," *Scientific Monthly*, February, 1944, p. 164.

the kind of work which is subject to immediate direction and supervision.

7. It must be a type of beneficial work, the result of which is not subject to standardization in terms of unit performance or time element.
8. It must have a group consciousness designed to extend scientific knowledge in technical language.
9. It must have sufficient self-impelling power to retain its members throughout life. It must not be used as a mere stepping stone to other occupations.
10. It must recognize its obligations to society by insisting that its members live up to an established and accepted code of ethics.

SPECIFIC NATURE OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Individual Nature

Definitions such as have been indicated in the previous section do not necessarily reveal all of the individual characteristics and peculiarities of a profession when applied to a single profession. Each profession must be studied in the light of its own traditions, purposes, and problems. This is particularly true of the teaching profession. Indeed there are some who point out that teaching has not yet arrived at that preferred status where it can be included within any classification that embraces law, medicine, and the ministry. It is the purpose of this section to examine the teaching profession in the light of its individual characteristics and problems.

The approach to such an analysis should logically come from a consideration of the purposes of education itself. Education is an essential and integral part of the democratic social process. Whatever democracy, that is our way of social living, desires for its betterment is the task of education to accomplish. Here there are two concerns which educators must keep in mind; one, the individual, his rights and privileges, and the other, the social group which may be said to exist for the welfare and happiness of individual and group living. The great task of democracy, as well as education, is to harmonize them in balanced measure and to secure the concern of each for the other.¹⁰

¹⁰ The student should read: National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy*, 1938, for a concise account of fundamental purposes.

To the teacher then has been assigned the task of the fulfillment of education's objectives, whether his duties are performed in the public or private school, college, or university. The end is the same. It is a task of the profession to understand the part that it shall play in this accomplishment. The specific nature of teaching is brought out by Woodley and Woodley¹¹ through an interesting contrast with other professions. After pointing out that a profession must meet the four criteria of (1) dedication to human services, (2) a body of fundamental principles, knowledges, and skills, (3) basic preparation, and (4) a recognized code of ethics, they indicate by comparison the specific nature of certain other professions. Medicine is devoted to the physical welfare of humanity; the ministry, to mankind's spiritual welfare; while teaching is concerned not only with the mental development of the human race but in addition comprehends, in a larger sense, the physical, mental, moral, social, and even spiritual welfare of all humanity. This is an interesting concept and to be thoroughly appreciated requires much thought.

Specific Principles

A consideration of the specific principles which should underlie the profession of teaching, and are fundamental to its comprehension and administration includes:

1. Since social living is dynamic by nature, and education the essential agency in adjusting the individual to social change, it follows that the professional service rendered by the teaching profession is to adjust and develop the constantly changing and growing human nature. The focus of the teacher must be progressively forward-looking rather than traditional and mechanical. The teaching profession should be accepted as a full time life-time calling, since mankind changes slowly and the accomplishment of this objective requires a span of years.

2. The preparation of the teacher requires both a pre-service as well as in-service training which will include certain essential knowledges, skills, and understandings, together with a certain resourcefulness adequate to meet the emerging unsolved educational and social problems inherent in his professional task. These should include:

¹¹ O. I. Woodley and M. Virginia Woodley, *The Profession of Teaching*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917.

1. Breadth of scholarship and understanding
2. Techniques of accomplishment
3. Personality development
4. Social insight

3. The teacher both seeks and implants truth, but in doing so emphasizes its personal and social values. To this end, he must be motivated with lofty ideals and superior social attitudes. These characteristics should develop as he matures in his professional life.

4. The professional service of the teacher being constantly focused on its social significance requires that this service be performed with emphasis on social welfare *superior* to personal profit and ultimate security. To this end it should be the purpose of teachers' organizations primarily to improve the professional service, with secondary emphasis on salaries, pensions, and tenure. The attainment of each thereby becomes concomitant.

5. The professional service of teachers is always performed in the presence of humans and for individual human development. It is with them that the teacher is directly and entirely concerned. Materials must always be subordinated to this end. It is the task of the teacher to see that, within the limits of his influence, no human right is violated and that every opportunity be afforded for the growth and development of each individual.

6. The attainment of these objectives will of necessity require the maintenance of desirable relationships on the part of teachers. These relationships, commonly known as ethics, have many facets and extend in many directions. They include relationships with the profession itself, with pupils, parents, patrons, and others within the community, and, above all, with himself and his own personal development.

THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN RELATION TO OTHER PROFESSIONS

In order to have a better understanding of the nature and scope of the teaching profession, it is of importance to have an understanding of (1) the distribution of all occupational groups in the United States, and (2) all professionally employed persons in the United States. Two tables have been prepared which set forth this information. Table 1 indicates a distribution of major occupational groups of employed persons by sex and per cent (1950 Census). The Bureau

of the Census classifies thirteen such groups. All professional, technical, and kindred workers have been classified together for purposes of comparison, and constitute 8.9 per cent of the total. Of these, 7.4 per cent are men and 12.6 per cent, women. Thus, approximately one out of twelve gainfully employed persons in the United States is a professional worker or a technician; of them two out of three are women.

A distribution of all professionally employed groups is shown in Table 2. A total of twenty-one different professional groups as classified by the Sixteenth Census ranks teachers as by far the largest single group (35.4 per cent). They constitute over one-third of all professionally employed persons. If one would include teachers classified in other professions, as in music, art, and in college and university, the number would approximate 40 per cent. The nearest professional group in point of numbers is that of nurses (12.3). The interested reader will note the distribution of other professional groups in the table.

TABLE I. MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP OF EMPLOYED PERSONS BY SEX AND PER CENT IN THE UNITED STATES (1950 CENSUS)

	1950 Total	Male	Female	1940 Total
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	8.9	7.4	12.6	7.9
Farmers and farm managers	8.0	10.7	0.8	11.5
Managers—officials and proprietors	9.0	10.8	4.3	8.3
Clerical and kindred workers	12.1	6.5	26.7	9.8
Sales workers	6.7	6.2	8.0	6.5
Craftsmen and foremen	13.7	18.3	1.6	11.4
Operatives	19.8	20.0	19.2	18.2
Private household workers	2.6	0.2	8.9	4.6
Service workers (exc. above)	7.4	5.6	12.2	7.2
Farm laborers (Paid)	2.8	3.5	0.9	4.3
Farm laborers (Unpaid)	1.7	1.5	2.1	2.6
Laborers (exc. farm and mine)	6.0	8.0	0.7	6.9
Occupations not reported	1.4	1.2	2.0	0.8
Total	100	100	100	100

The teaching profession is, by and large, a woman's profession. The table indicates that over three-fourths are women. This is in

TABLE 2. PROFESSIONALLY EMPLOYED PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES^a

Rank	Occupations	Total	%	Male	Female	Per Cent Male
	All occupations	45,166,083		34,027,905	11,138,178	75.3
	Professional	2,881,592	6.4	1,511,118	1,370,474	52.4
1	Teachers ^b	1,019,760	35.4	247,716	772,044	24.3
2	Trained and student nurses	355,786	12.3	7,509	348,277	2.1
3	Engineers	245,288	8.5	244,558	730	99.6
4	Lawyers and judges	177,643	6.2	173,456	4,187	97.6
5	Physicians and surgeons	164,649	5.7	157,041	7,608	95.4
6	Clergymen	136,597	4.7	133,449	3,148	97.7
7	Musicians and music teachers	129,256	4.5	69,800	59,456	54.0
8	Pharmacists	79,347	2.8	76,131	3,216	95.9
9	College presidents, professors and instructors	75,007	2.6	55,123	19,884	73.5
10	Dentists	70,121	2.4	69,074	1,047	98.5
11	Social and welfare workers	69,677	2.4	24,868	44,809	35.7
12	Editors and reporters	58,253	2.0	43,503	14,750	74.7
13	Chemists, assayers, and metallurgists	57,024	2.0	55,371	1,654	97.1
14	Artists and art teachers	51,985	1.8	34,478	17,507	66.3
15	Librarians	36,347	1.3	3,801	32,546	10.5
16	Architects	20,376	.7	19,899	447	97.7
17	Authors	11,806	.4	8,020	3,786	67.9
18	Actors and actresses	11,692	.4	6,931	4,761	59.3
19	Veterinarians	10,717	.4	10,638	79	99.3
20	County agents and farm demonstrators	10,241	.4	5,845	4,396	57.1
21	Osteopaths	6,007	.2	4,905	1,102	81.7
	Other prof. workers (NEC)	84,012	2.9	59,002	25,010	70.2

^a Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, vol. 3, *The Labor Force*, Part I, "United States Summary," Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1943. (Public Emergency Work not included).^b Not otherwise included.

sharp contrast to the professions of law, medicine, and ministry which are usually classed as the oldest and probably best developed professions, and have often been proclaimed as prototypes for the teaching profession—especially medicine. It should be pointed out, however, that the leadership of the teaching profession is predominantly male, although this fact is not indicated in the table.

THE SCIENCE, ART, AND IDEALS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

The teaching profession owes much for its development to the science of education. The contributions of the scientists have readily found their way into the classroom through the curriculum and methods of teaching. The field of measurement has provided techniques for determining ability as well as norms for grade and subject progress. School buildings have been better planned through scientific discoveries. Many administrative procedures have been scientifically determined. Educational objectives have been revised in the light of scientific inquiry. Psychology has thrown much light on the habits, attitudes, knowledges, and skills of pupils. Visual-auditory aids are common. This list would be long if we had space to indicate them all.

Good teaching, however, must be predicated upon something more significant and lasting. While the alert teacher will use all available scientific instrumentalities, the motivating power behind good teaching is the nature and vitality of the philosophical concepts and values held by the teacher. While schools of philosophical thought have attempted to categorize teachers, nevertheless individual and group characteristics, traditions, environments, and personal attitudes will color the nature and effectiveness of the teacher. At this point the artistic teacher emerges, one who utilizes the contributions of science with skill and good taste, bathed in a pleasing and effective personality. The art of good teaching implies the effective use of well-chosen skills and the power of convincing performance acquired by experience, study, and close observation. Emotional considerations have an important place in the art of good teaching.

At the same time it must be recalled that the typical teacher's services are highly idealistic. Palmer¹² wrote a significant little book

¹² *Op. cit.*

more than forty years ago in which he set forth the characteristics of the ideal teacher. His opening sentence is noteworthy. "In America, a land of *idealism*, the profession of teaching has become one of the greatest of human employments." He named the four fundamental characteristics of the teacher: "First, a teacher must have an aptitude for vicariousness; and second, an already accumulated wealth; and third, an ability to invigorate life through knowledge, and fourth, a readiness to be forgotten. Having these any teacher is secure. Lacking them, lacking even one, he is liable to serious failure." Undoubtedly the spirit of this little monograph has had a tremendous influence upon the ideals of the teaching profession.

Good teaching, in the final analysis, is predicated on a proper balance of its professional aspects. There must be no conflict between the science of education, the art of education, and the ideals of good teaching. Each must be related to the other and all brought into proper perspective. The problem is how best to accomplish it.

THE NATURE OF THE TASK OF ADMINISTERING THE TEACHER PERSONNEL

Administration of the teacher personnel is one of the essential functions of school administration. This text is an attempt to define the nature and limits of that function. The approach that has been developed in this chapter is that teaching is a profession, and as such has definite and peculiar characteristics which must be taken into consideration in the administration of the personnel. Leadership of the teaching profession involves an understanding of its nature. Administrative solutions of the problems which emerge within the function should be sought in the light of these principles. Only in this way will the teaching profession develop as have other great professions and satisfy the cause of its existence.

It must be realized that much remains to be done before teaching can rank among the great professions. It is true that personnel in higher education have advanced far in professional status, but among the great numbers of elementary and secondary teachers the task of professional advancement is great. The level of compensation and of living for teachers must be raised. Conditions of service must be made more attractive, not only in attracting capable people into the profession, but in holding them there. Teachers must be inspired

with new vision and zeal. Teachers must have more respect for themselves and the teaching profession. The teaching profession must face its problems with a new courage even in spite of public apathy or even opposition. Teacher education institutions must carry a greater responsibility in throwing off tradition, inculcating knowledges, and demonstrating practices based on the scientific approach. Young teachers when they enter the profession must not be blinded by tradition but must approach their task dynamically and professionally, with a thought always toward providing a better social order.

This task is a multiheaded one. It is the task of the teacher himself in his school and in his local state and national organization. It is the task of the supervisor, principal, superintendent. It is the task of the state department of education. Organizations such as parent-teacher associations can do much for the common good. Where boys and girls are concerned, there are perhaps no limiting boundaries to endeavor.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Prepare a report on the guilds of the Middle Ages as to purposes, organization, and services to their time. Compare these with the profession of teaching, and with one or more other professions.
2. Search the literature in order to find oldest references to teachers and teaching. Compare with later references. What differences are noted?
3. Compare several definitions of a profession. In what ways do they differ?
4. Evaluate Horton's characteristics of a profession.
5. Evaluate the six principles which should underlie the profession of teaching. Do you accept them *in toto*? Give reason for your answer.
6. Compare opportunities for young men and young women in ten of the professions indicated in Table 2.
7. What is your understanding of the function of administering the teacher personnel?

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Teachers and Their Characteristics

SINCE teaching is now recognized as a profession, it is necessary, before proceeding further, to have a better understanding of the value and scope of the teaching profession, and of the characteristics of those who are its members. We are concerned here with professional teachers, that is, those who devote their chief energies to the profession of education, either in direct contact with pupils or in some administrative or supervisory position. This discussion will pertain principally to those engaged in teaching in the public elementary and secondary schools of the nation, since they constitute by far the largest number of teachers. However, the profession of teaching includes those engaged in teaching in private schools, colleges, and universities, as well as the teaching of adults in many types of educational institutions.

Since teaching is so important to the welfare of the youth of the nation, and, in consequence, to the nation itself, it is obvious that we need for our children teachers of quality so that thereby the quality of the nation may be enhanced and its culture improved. In turn, it is obvious that quality in teaching depends largely upon criteria of quality applied at the time of the teacher's selection. In addition, there must be quality in preparation, improvement in service, and adequate attention to physical, economic, and social welfare.

This section will point out the nature and scope of the teaching profession, social and economic status, activities and attitudes of teachers, progress in the development of teaching as a profession, and give some emphasis on teaching as a career.

NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

In the previous chapter, teaching has been compared with other professions as identified through the Census. In this section, a distribution of teachers in all types of institutions, public, private, and higher education, will be presented. In addition, some indication will be given as to the numbers engaged in administrative and supervisory positions.

Teachers

A distinguishing feature of American education is the great variety of institutions devoted to it. Naturally there are wide differences among institutions as to their objectives, educational program, and levels of instruction, which in turn produce teachers of varying types, philosophies, characteristics, cultures, and skills. This is graphically indicated in Table 3. Kindergarten and elementary teachers account for 53.4 per cent of all teachers engaged in teaching, of which approximately nine out of ten are engaged in public-school teaching. About three out of ten (30.2 per cent) are employed as teachers in the secondary schools of the nation, most of whom are teachers in the American public high schools. About the same number of elementary as secondary teachers are in private schools. A negligible number of teachers are employed in college preparatory departments.

The table also includes information concerning the number of teachers in higher education, including professors and instructors in normal schools and teachers' colleges, universities, colleges, and professional schools. The table shows that 14.7 per cent of all teachers are so classified; it points out further the comparatively small number employed as teachers in schools for exceptional children, schools for Alaskans and Indians, and private business schools.

Administrative Officers

Of the 92,057 administrative officers reported by the U.S. Office of Education in 1947-1948, principals and supervisors in the public schools constitute about half of this group. Most of these are men. Superintendents of all types including professional members of their staffs (23,479) comprise about one-fourth of this group. Presidents and other nonteaching administrative and professional officers in

TABLE 3. NUMBER AND PER CENT OF TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICERS,
BY SEX AND BY LEVELS AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS^a

	Men	Women	Total	Per Cent
I. Kindergarten and elementary schools				
Public	38,655	515,284	553,939 (89.1)	53.4
Private	3,753	63,677	67,430 (10.9)	
Secondary schools				
Public	122,258	183,481	305,739 (86.7)	30.2
Private	15,578	25,900	41,568 (11.8)	
Preparatory departments of colleges				
	2,618	2,493	5,111 (1.5)	
Higher education				
Normal schools and teachers colleges				14.7
Public	5,794	5,208	11,002 (6.3)	
Private	359	543	902 (.6)	
Universities, colleges, and professional schools	124,545	37,755	162,300 (93.1)	
Miscellaneous schools				
Schools for exceptional children	1,148	4,771	5,919 (38.3)	1.7
Schools for Alaskans and Indians	555	1,118	1,673 (10.8)	
Private business schools	3,537	4,338	7,875 (50.9)	
Total teachers	318,800	844,658	1,163,458	100.0
II. Superintendents: city, county, local and professional or semiprofessional staff members of superintendent's office—assistants, business officers, directors, etc.				
Principals and supervisors (public schools)	18,473	5,006	23,479	25.5
Officers in state departments of education, superintendents, assistants, heads of departments, supervisors, etc.	37,144	9,191	46,335	50.3
Presidents and other non-teaching administrative and professional officers in charge of public and private colleges	2,401	288	2,689	3.0
Total administrative officers	13,061	6,493	19,554	21.2
Total teachers and administrative officers	71,079	20,978	92,057	100.0

^a Data from U.S. Office of Education, "Statistical Summary of Education," Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-1948, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1950.

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charge of public and private colleges total 19,554 (21.2 per cent). The grand total of all teachers and administrative officers in all types of schools and colleges in 1948 was 1,255,515 persons, or about 0.8 per cent of the total population in the United States. With over a million and a quarter professional trained men and women in charge of the educational program of the country, the schools and colleges would appear to be adequately manned. The extent to which this statement can be defended will be discussed in succeeding sections.

CLASSIFICATION OF TEACHERS

Sex

Most American teachers are women, with a ratio of women to men slightly less than six to one. The number of men teachers has steadily declined since 1880 when two out of five teachers were men. Even as late as 1940, the ratio was about one out of five (Table 4). But World War II seriously thinned the ranks of men teachers. With the return of young men from the armed services and a more advantageous economic status for teachers, the number of men teachers has been increasing slightly. It is important to note that the attraction of young men to teaching as well as their retention in it is in direct relation to three basic factors: salaries, promotion, and the armed services.

Men teachers are found principally in the secondary schools, colleges, and universities, and in administrative positions. The elementary schools remain largely in charge of women teachers and principals. The small number of men in the elementary schools are in the upper elementary grades and in administrative and supervising positions. There is a slight increase in younger men teachers in the elementary schools.

These facts have great significance to the education of youth, since boys and girls are being conditioned during their impressionable years largely through feminine influence. While there may be nothing wrong in this disparity in itself, undoubtedly there ought to be a far greater degree of masculine influence in the education of developing boys and girls. With the exception of the first few years, it is not too much to say that the influence of men and women in teaching ought to be equal.

S.C.E.R.T., West Bengal

Date.....

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TABLE 4. DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES BY SEX, 1870-1949

Year	Men	Women	Total	Percentage of Men
1870	77,529	122,986	200,515	38.7
1880	122,795	163,798	286,593	42.8
1890	125,525	238,397	363,922	34.5
1900	126,588	296,474	423,062	29.9
1910	110,481	412,729	523,210	21.1
1920	95,654	583,648	679,533	14.1
1930	141,771	712,492	854,263	16.5
1940	194,725	680,752	875,477	22.2
1944	126,672	701,318	827,990	15.3
1946	138,209	694,817	833,026	16.6
1947-1948	161,913	698,765	860,678	18.8
1948-1949	173,260	748,334	921,594	18.8

Age

Teachers are no longer as young a group as formerly. In the early part of the century,¹ the typical teacher was a young woman twenty-four years of age, having entered teaching in the early part of her nineteenth year, when she had received but four years training beyond the elementary school. As one of a family of several children she had to make her own way on her meager salary. When the opportunity for marriage occurred, she left teaching after a few years to make way for another young man or woman of similar immaturity and beginning very likely at the same tender age. Since then the average age of teachers has been increasing. The percentage of teachers more than 45 years of age rose from 8 to 17 during the four decades between 1890 and 1930. By 1940 it was about 20 per cent. Bigelow stated that the median age of teachers in 1944 was about 35 years.²

However, it is well known that the median age in many larger cities is now as much as twenty years above this median age level. In other words, the typical teacher in service is now middle-aged or well past it. On this account there is a sufficient explanation of increased interest in retirement and other forms of security.

¹ Lotus D. Coffman, *The Social Composition of the Teaching Population*, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911, p. 80.

² *Teachers for Our Times*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944, p. 8.

The mounting age of teachers points out several problems in teacher personnel which will be mentioned here and discussed in later chapters. There are not now enough young and vigorous persons entering teaching to maintain the vigor of a sound profession. Certain problems of physical and emotional adjustment, especially of older teachers, will require special consideration. Teachers past middle age are not inclined to improve in service of their own volition and are more inclined to resent suggestions or pressure from administrative sources to improve professionally.

Position

In teaching, as in other professions, there is a strong tendency toward specialization. There are teachers of *subjects* in practically every field and on every level of human knowledge. There are teachers and other specialists concerned with a wide variety of services now available to childhood, as in health, guidance, supervision, and evaluation. This has necessitated specialized teacher-preparation institutions and specialized curricula within these institutions to prepare teachers adequately for these services. The certification requirements of the various states are perhaps the best indication of this trend. *Greater* specialization is manifested in teaching as one climbs the educational ladder, being least noticeable in rural schools, increasingly so in upper elementary grades and the secondary schools, and most noticeable on the college and university level, especially in the professional schools.

This emphasis upon specialization in teacher education and the administration of the teaching profession is of the utmost importance, especially since it requires the development of specific knowledges, skills, appreciations, and understandings on the various service levels. In the elementary school, for instance, teachers must be specially prepared for service in nursery schools, kindergartens, primary schools, and intermediate schools. Teachers in rural schools have a much different function, being concerned with *all* elementary children from a specific cultural and social group and with peculiar problems. A similar situation exists in the junior and senior high schools, where the emphasis is upon the education of adolescent youth, and the offerings widely adapted along lines of individual abilities, interests, and aptitudes. Many groups of children of all ages, such as mentally retarded, physically handicapped, and excep-

tionally bright, require teachers with specialized types of preparation. Many teachers in smaller schools (eight teachers or fewer) give a portion of their time to administrative and clerical duties, for which some preparation is required. These are generally known as teaching principals or head teachers. In larger cities, staff officers with varied titles and many specific responsibilities assist the superintendent in charge. These latter types of positions are generally more desirable as to salary and working conditions, and offer opportunities of eventual administrative leadership, serving to attract and retain many young men and women in the teaching profession.

A study of salaries in relation to positions in the larger cities of the United States yields a graphic illustration of the degree of specialization in school systems. The National Education Association³ has classified types of school employees in these cities as follows:

Major Types of School Employees	Number of Different Classifications
Regular classroom teachers (all schools)	7
Teaching department heads, deans, and assistant principals	2
Supervisory deans, department heads, and assistant principals	7
Principals	6
Administrative and supervisory staff, in- cluding directors	27
Other school employees	12

The range of salaries for these positions varies with the size of the school system and for 1950-1951 was as much as seven times. Specific services as offered by each school system may increase the number and variety of assigned personnel within each of these classifications.

Preparation Levels

The typical teacher in the American public schools is a college graduate of fifteen or more years' teaching experience. Many of these teachers have lengthened their educational preparation until there is now a discernible tendency toward the attainment of the master's degree level. Nearly all of the younger teachers entering the teaching profession have now achieved at least the baccalaureate degree. But with the turnover of younger teachers still too high for profes-

³ National Education Association, Research Division, "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees, 1950-51," *Research Bulletin*, April, 1951.

sional advantage, many of these do not advance in their educational preparation beyond the requirements of minimum certification or local demands, especially in the elementary schools.

Since about half of the teachers in our schools are now about 35 years of age, it is interesting to examine their educational status at the time of entrance into the profession. In 1920, only about half of the 600,000 teachers then teaching had more than four years' education beyond the eighth grade. During the 1920's there was a gradual rise in initial educational preparation until the typical teacher became a "normal graduate" with two years posthigh-school professional preparation. This was particularly true of the elementary teachers. High-school teachers were more and more recruited from the liberal arts colleges and the universities, being graduates of a four-year college preparation program. The nature of this program was largely academic, with little or no emphasis on *professional* preparation designed to prepare these teachers in the skills, knowledges, and appreciations essential to good teaching. This lack was met in part through the establishment of in-service professional preparation programs, designed to raise the preparation level of teachers and fit them better for the professional aspect of their calling. Many older teachers now in service, received the many benefits of this professional endeavor.

By 1940,⁴ the typical classroom teacher in the American public schools had achieved at least three years of educational preparation beyond the high school. Naturally, there was a great range in preparation for teachers when rural school and large school systems are considered. By 1940, about one teacher in three claimed college graduation or its equivalent; with the high school teachers the proportion was about nine out of ten. Junior high school teachers were more often recruited from the teachers in the upper grades of the elementary schools, with a typical two-year normal-school education. Rural-school teachers were generally of poor quality and on lower preparation levels. Greater ranges as to preparation also existed in the several geographical sections of the nation, and as between white and Negro teachers. The important thing to note is that about one-half of our teachers have not raised their preparation levels to the baccalaureate degree.

⁴ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin*, March, 1940.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATUS

Wide Representation

All races, nationalities, religions, and cultures are to be found among the membership of the teaching profession. Since education has as one of its *primary purposes* the reproduction of the culture, often a specific culture, this fact may be significant. In private education where there is usually an emphasis on a particular religion, culture, or social status, teachers are rigidly selected in order to perpetuate a particular objective. Meanwhile, local prejudices are likely to be sharply reflected when teachers are appointed or promoted. With the advance of the democratic principle and greater emphasis on tolerance and social understanding, prejudicial barriers have been lowered in many instances. Bigelow states it well when he says, "If all the teachers of the nation could be brought together in some vast conclave, there would be included Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, 'old' Americans, second generation folk, and immigrants, Indians, Negroes, Whites, and Orientals."⁵ However, public schools face many problems directly related to social conflicts of ethnic and religious groups.

Racial and religious origins and convictions and oftentimes political beliefs are factors which determine the selection of teachers in conformity with the community patterns. The prevailing religious community controls influence no end teachers' acceptability and services. Particularly handicapped in this respect are Jews and Negroes. Even in mixed schools where the pupils are predominantly Negro, the chances are quite against a Negro teacher being employed. Religious tests are being generally applied through information secured on the application blank or through references or hearsay. There is, however, a discernible tendency away from this practice. Agnostics and Communists, if known, have little chance of securing teaching positions in the public schools, since such beliefs and attitudes are not in conformity with public-school objectives and ideals. Loyalty oaths and state and local regulations constitute powerful preventative measures in most instances. It is almost axiomatic to state that teachers in the public schools should be thoroughly in accord, not only with sound educational objectives, but with the democratic principles which public education seeks to perpetuate.

⁵ *Teachers for Our Times*, op. cit., p. 9

Economic Status

The economic welfare of teachers has risen sharply within recent years. The gradual rise of salaries since 1870 is shown in the table below. In 1946 the average annual salary of teachers had risen to nearly \$2000. By 1948-49 it had risen to \$2750, on a national average, and in 1952-1953 was reported by the National Education Association to be \$3530.

*Average Annual Salaries of Teachers
1870-1953*

1870	\$ 189
1880	195
1890	252
1900	325
1910	485
1920	871
1930	1420
1940	1441
1944	1728
1946	1995
1948-49	2750
1950-51	3100
1952-53	3530

However, there is a great range in teachers' salaries. For example, one year (1950-1951) there was a range of from \$2831 for cities of about 2500 and over to \$456 in cities over 500,000. Similarly, there is a great range in salaries paid teachers by schools. Senior high school teachers receive larger salaries than junior high school teachers, and both receive considerably higher salaries than elementary teachers. While administrative officials generally receive higher salaries than teachers, there is a tendency to reduce this gap, as teachers emerge on higher preparation and experience levels.

Any discussion of the teachers' economic position must take into consideration the purchasing power of the dollar and the teachers' "take-home pay." Income-tax regulations now apply to all teachers. The purchasing power of the dollar has steadily declined from the standard of \$1.00 in 1939 to about 56 cents in 1953. This means that, due to (1) declining purchasing power, (2) federal income tax, and (3) slower comparative rise of teachers' salaries, the typical teacher is less well off economically, especially if compared with other em-

ployees, than he was in 1940, taking into consideration the rising cost of living and his own increased preparation and efficiency.⁶

Part-Time Employment

Since teachers are generally employed for an average of slightly less than 180 school days each year, about three months remain for gainful employment along other occupational lines. Because of financial need, many teachers are forced to engage in some occupation apart from their professional preparation. There is an increasing tendency for teachers to supplement their income during the school year by part-time employment of many descriptions, such as clerical work, skilled trades, recreational activities, summer-school teaching, farming, sales, and odd jobs. Such addition to the family income enables teachers to maintain a degree of economic and social status more likely to be commensurate with a reasonable professional standard of living. It is unfortunate and deplorable, however, that this has become necessary. Teachers should be paid enough to enable them to maintain themselves and their families as becomes professional men or women.

Residence

The practice of employing local teachers to fill the majority of teaching positions has persisted through the years. The desire to retain teachers for longer periods of time generally for lower salaries has been one of the determining factors. As an outcome serious inbreeding has resulted. All authorities advocate policies of selection which will attract and retain teachers of such quality and diversified cultural and social backgrounds as will be to the advantage of the boys and girls.

More significant in regard to residence is the provincialism of many school boards in insisting upon employing only those who conform to a certain community pattern. Beale⁷ has made an excellent analysis of this problem. For example, teachers with Southern family background may find difficulty in securing employment in the North, and vice versa. In the East there may be a strong feeling

⁶ See National Education Association, Research Division, "Economic Status of Teachers in 1952-53," *Research Bulletin*, November, 1952.

⁷ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, chap. 17.

against an applicant from the Middle West. A teacher born in an urban community might have difficulty in securing a position in an agricultural area. Out-of-state applicants are often discriminated against. The principle of employing the "native" is deeply rooted. The efficiency of the teacher should be the principal criterion of selection and retention. Residence has little place as a primary factor in selection.

PERSONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Health

The teacher's health is far more than an individual matter since it affects, directly and indirectly, the health, happiness, and success of the children, and indeed of all those with whom he comes in contact. Studies which have been made as to teachers' health indicate that not more than one-fourth of all teachers enjoy what may be termed excellent health, although only about 15 to 20 per cent lack the kind of vigor needed for successful classroom work. Men teachers as a whole have better health than women, and younger teachers better health than older. The problems of physical health are often such as may affect teachers' mental health. Teachers are subject to worry, retreat from reality, isolation, sensitiveness, overemphasis of the trivial, and irritability. Since most teachers are women, many of these conditions would seem to be peculiarly related to the female sex.⁸

Personal Qualities

It is generally known that teachers come predominantly from families of modest circumstances. Many young people who enter higher institutions with the intent of teaching must provide some, even most, of the cost of their education. Since they are likely to come from hard-working, substantial family stock, cultural and social advantages may oftentimes be meager or lacking. While all of these young people have secured a high-school education, quite often they graduate from a small high school whose educational program may be restricted.

In a recent study, Heim⁹ has given us an excellent picture of the social and economic status of entering state teachers' college stu-

⁸ The health of the teacher is given a more extensive treatment in a later chapter.

⁹ Thomas J. S. Heim, *A Comparative Study of the Social and Economic Status of*

dents. Most of these students come from Anglo-Saxon parentage, although in nearly one-fourth of the homes some other language than English is spoken. Fathers of these students are, typically, businessmen and skilled and unskilled laborers. The professions and agriculture each provide about one out of eight students. The family income of these groups is indicated by the nature of the occupation. Heim has shown by comparable studies that students who enter liberal arts colleges to prepare for teaching have relatively higher economic and social advantages than those who enter teachers' colleges, for whom books, magazines, and other cultural and social advantages appear to be limited, although it must be pointed out that many parents of limited educational and social opportunities desire better things for their children. Many young people engage in economic pursuits both prior to and during their college courses in order to gain additional funds.

As to religious preferences, 86 per cent of the students expressed some preference, most of them being actively associated with some church. About three-fourths were of Protestant extraction. Graf's¹⁰ finding in these areas concerning teachers in service bear out those of Heim. She points out that teachers in service, in the main, are native Americans whose families are of modest circumstances, yet aspiring more for their children than they themselves had received. On the whole, the culture of the average teacher was no higher than the average pupil in the school. Quite often the woman teacher came from a home where an older brother secured some educational advantage in a profession other than teaching. In all such instances, preference as to educational advantage rested with the male members of the family. Graf found that the median age of teachers was well along in the middle-age bracket.

Marital Status

Traditionally, most women teachers have been unmarried. The assumption has prevailed that teaching requires the full-time services

State Teachers' College Students, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1940. See also George Kaluger, *A Comparative Study of Social and Economic Backgrounds of Students Entering State Teachers' Colleges*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1950.

¹⁰ Elizabeth Graf, *Development of In-Service Personnel Policies and Practices as Evidenced in City School Surveys*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1947, chap. 2.

of the teacher. Since marriage is generally accepted as a full-time occupation for women, it would thereby interfere with the teacher's full-time classroom responsibilities. In days when younger teachers were more plentiful, many school boards made marriage of women teachers an immediate occasion for dismissal because of availability of younger teachers at lower entering salaries. In 1945, a study¹¹ of teachers showed that one-fourth of urban women and nine-tenths of urban men were married. Graf¹² found a definite tendency to supplant prejudice against the married woman teacher with selection and retention of teachers on a merit basis. Unmarried teachers hasten to point out that many of them have family responsibilities and dependents as pressing as those of married teachers. This is admitted. Prejudice against the married woman teacher is still widespread. It cannot yet be said that teachers generally are paid sufficiently to attract and retain capable persons in the profession regardless of marital status. Other welfare factors are helping, such as advantageous salary schedules, tenure, and retirement. Many teachers earn significant amounts aside from teaching. Approximately half of all teachers have one or more dependents.¹³ There are great variations as to salary and dependency among teachers in urban and rural areas and among men and women. The teacher's economic position demands much greater study.

Characteristics of Teachers in Relation to Duties Performed

The duties teachers perform give some indication as to their particular characteristics, especially in the performances of specific assignments. Charters' and Waples' monumental study¹⁴ identified 1001 specific activities of teachers, which they classified into seven different divisions. In addition to (1) instruction, teachers give attention to (2) setting up objectives, (3) selecting and organizing instructional materials, (4) pupil activities, (5) investigating individual pupil needs, (6) interests and abilities, and (7) achievement of pupils. Recent developments in teaching have emphasized certain administrative duties for teachers, among them guidance and con-

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1945.

¹² Graf, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

¹³ "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," *op. cit.*, p. 132.

¹⁴ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1929, pp. 304-472.

trol of pupils, health and safety, attendance, school property and facilities, routine matters including drives and administering school funds, teachers' associations, and community responsibilities. These added responsibilities have greatly improved the teacher's status, and undoubtedly have influenced the qualifications demanded of teachers.

CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS (FROM THE PUPIL'S VIEWPOINT)

The discussion thus far has taken into consideration characteristics and qualifications of teachers from the professional point of view. Many attempts have been made to identify the characteristics of teachers from the pupils' point of view on the assumption that, in the last analysis, the pupil profits most by teacher effectiveness and is qualified to distinguish between good and poor teachers in relation to those characteristics most influential in determining the nature and degree of their effectiveness.

Two studies have been selected for discussion in which the qualities of teachers are identified by pupils. In a study of returns from ten thousand high school seniors, Hart gives a composite picture of three types of teachers: Teacher A, the best-liked teacher, Teacher Z, the least-liked teacher, and Teacher H, the teacher who taught most effectively. Pupils identified a total of forty-three reasons for liking Teacher A best. Ranking first in reasons given is "is helpful with school work, explains lessons and assignments clearly, and uses examples in teaching." The second assigned reason is "cheerful, happy, good natured, jolly, has a sense of humor, and can take a joke." A review of all reasons indicates that, while pupils recognize intelligence in teachers, they are more concerned with the manner in which this intelligence is registered in the teachers' behavior toward them. The good teacher is vital, living, helpful, speaks to the pupils, stimulates learning environment, and, above all, understands pupils and is sympathetic with their problems. Personal attractiveness is always present in a good teacher.

The least-liked teacher (Teacher Z) is revealed through a total of thirty characteristics as reported by the pupils. It is noteworthy that by far the larger number of these characteristics are indicated as the "opposites" of the best-liked teacher traits. Pupils dislike the teacher who is "too cross, crabby, grouchy, never laughs, nagging, sarcastic,

loses temper, flies off the handle." They identify the poor teacher as one who is not helpful with the school work or does not explain or plan the lessons, or maintains poor discipline. They dislike teachers who are partial, haughty, aloof, mean, unfair, inconsiderate, dull, and uninteresting. Defects in personality as in voice, manner, dress, and morals, and stupidity are among the "earmarks" of the poor teacher.

The effective teacher (Teacher H) is one who has the characteristics of Teacher A, but in addition has the high quality of causing pupils to learn. This is brought about through exacting standards of work, strictness, serious purpose, and above all, a personality which is human and pleasing and designed to influence the pupil toward being efficient himself.¹⁵

Robinson's¹⁶ study of teacher traits goes further in identifying these traits by (1) teaching levels, and (2) professional as compared with personal characteristics. The few approved traits ranking highest in frequency at the primary level are—interest in pupils, patience, impartiality, cheerfulness, and understanding of children; at the intermediate level—helpfulness, impartiality, cheerfulness, interest in pupils, and ability to explain; at the junior high school level—helpfulness, considerateness, interest in pupils, understanding of children, and cheerfulness; at the senior high school level—helpfulness, ability to awaken interest, considerateness, knowledge of subject matter, and ability to explain. It will be observed that personal characteristics are more readily identified by younger pupils, while qualities more definitely related to a teacher's professional effectiveness increase in importance as the pupil advances in age, knowledge, and understanding.

TEACHING AS A CAREER

Significant Aspects

It is desirable at this point to bring together significant aspects of teaching as a career so that some composite judgment may be offered as to this great profession. Teaching is by far the largest profession in point of numbers engaged in it. Thus, it offers oppor-

¹⁵ Frank W. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1934.

¹⁶ Raymond W. Robinson, *Student Analysis of Teacher Traits*, University of Pittsburgh, master's thesis, 1937.

tunities not only for gainful employment but for a wide variety of specialized interests. Teaching is second to no other occupation in its impact upon the social, economic, and political life of modern society. The teacher has an indispensable place in the preparation of our coming generations for vocations, home making, civic and social living, and leisure time activities, as well as all these activities which fit one for better living in our democratic way of life. The work of the teacher is essential to the preservation of our culture. As pupils are taught by good teachers, they are enabled, thereby, to improve the culture and to meet problems successfully. Many of the great men and women of all times have paid tribute to the profession of teaching, and, in many instances, to the influence of a great teacher.

Teaching is assuming its rightful place among the great professions. This is evidenced through better salaries, full-time employment, increased social respect, greater retention with less turnover, better and longer preparation, and higher quality of teachers and teaching in general. The various professional organizations of teaching are increasing in size and effectiveness. Teachers are recognizing the value of organization to themselves and their profession, and are becoming militant in upholding the great values of teaching in advancing the cause of education and society.

Challenges in Teaching

Perhaps no other profession offers greater challenges to the exercise of intellectual interests than teaching. This is indicated by the specialized nature of teaching and the specific challenges on all age and grade levels. There is a natural challenge in dealing with the immature mind, in nurturing its development, and in seeking the uplift of mankind in general.

Both men and women are attracted to the teaching profession. It is true that teaching has become largely a woman's profession; yet men in increasing numbers are being attracted to it. The more lucrative positions of educational leadership offer men challenges probably equalled nowhere else in our society.

The social and economic benefits of the teaching profession have been increasing in significance. Among these are higher salaries, retirement, tenure insurance, illness benefits, sabbatical leaves, improved health and sanitation conditions, improved environmental

conditions, and many others. A better basic preparation together with better supervision has enabled all teachers, particularly younger teachers, to meet their problems more successfully. There are many opportunities for advancement and increased professional growth, which permits teachers to take advantage of their own native abilities, and better their economic and social positions, thus lengthening their professional careers. A balanced teaching load, attractive working hours, and vacations attract many to teaching because of their adaptability to their particular mode of living.¹⁷

The Future Teacher

It is obvious that the profession of teaching must attract and retain good teachers if the cause of education is to succeed. The cultural background of all teachers must be raised. While this task is the responsibility of the profession, teacher education institutions must assume the initiative in the selection process. Promising young men and women should be encouraged to consider teaching as a professional opportunity and service of a high order. The economic level of all teachers should be raised so that its professional status will be comparable to other professions. Elsbree¹⁸ seems to think that the hope of attracting any sizable group of individuals from the higher economic classes in American society seems futile. Fortunately, this point of view is not generally shared. He would agree that we must raise the selective status of prospective teachers as high as possible and surround them with an environment which "reeks with cultural opportunities and experiences." All discerning observers of the profession of teaching will admit that great strides have been made in improving the quality of teachers and of teaching. Surely our rising generation is entitled to our best efforts.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Classify the staff personnel to be found in a selected school system. Note the variety of specialties of teachers and the nature of the education required in each instance.
2. Draw up a table showing the distribution of teachers in several categories in any state over a period of ten years.

¹⁷ Consult Federal Security Agency, *Teaching as a Career*, Bulletin no. 11, Washington, D.C., Office of Education, 1947.

¹⁸ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, p. 555.

3. Make a critical analysis of literature which deals with the characteristics of teachers.
4. What evidence is available to point out changing social and economic status of teachers?
5. To what extent should (a) residence, (b) marital status affect the employment and retention of teachers?
6. To what extent should age be a critical factor in the distribution of teachers (a) in a selected school? (b) in a county or state?
7. How can we take into consideration varying characteristics of teachers in relation to positions to be held or duties to be performed?
8. Ask a group of pupils on two or more grade levels to tell why (1) they like their *best* teacher, (2) they dislike their *poorest* teacher. Tabulate findings and compare with studies indicated in the chapter.

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Teacher Supply and Demand

ONE of the principal functions of good personnel administration is to fit competent and properly qualified teachers suitably into each teaching position. This applies as well to properly qualified personnel in each non-instructional position. When a vacancy occurs each position can be readily filled from a small reservoir of available and specifically qualified personnel. At the same time, there should be few, if any, competent personnel without positions suited to their qualifications. It is well known, however, that such a condition does not generally obtain. The teacher demand and supply is affected by economic conditions, salaries, geographical factors, race, sex, type of position, enrollment, and turnover.

It is the purpose of this chapter to examine this personnel function which is generally termed "teacher supply and demand." After suitable definitions, the supply aspect will be considered from the standpoint of sources, evidences, and factors in supply. Demand will be similarly presented. The relation of turnover will be studied as it applies to both supply and demand. Finally, fundamental principles of maintaining a balanced supply of teachers will be presented. These principles generally apply with equal force to nonteaching personnel.

MEANING OF SUPPLY AND DEMAND

The phrase "supply and demand" has been commonly used in the field of economics to describe prevailing market conditions. Here there is a relationship between the value and quantity of the things valued. Theoretically, supply and demand in the market always tend toward equilibrium, with any tendency toward inequality made up by an upward or downward movement in price. Regula-

tion by government is always a factor in supply and demand considerations. Supply and demand is affected by the nature of the demand, money power to purchase, number and quality of available workers, working conditions, artificial influences of many sorts, and conditions both within and without control such as acts of God.

Much of what has been said above applies to the teaching profession. When the demand for teachers is large and the supply is small, salaries tend to rise. Many social and economic conditions affect the relationship. When many well-qualified teachers are unable to secure positions, there is waste in teacher education. When the rising birth rate or sudden movement of population groups create an unusual demand for teachers, especially in certain areas, there is inefficiency in the educational process with lowered educational standards. The problem is one of maintaining demand and supply of teaching personnel in a relationship approximating equilibrium.

Definitions

For the purpose of our discussion the following are offered as working definitions of supply and demand as applied to teachers:

Supply means the available number of properly qualified personnel, which includes (1) graduates of accredited teacher educational institutions, (2) those who come into the state or districts from other states, and (3) those who return to teaching from other occupations, and decreased by those who leave the profession for any cause. These refer to properly educated and certificated teachers. Any augmentation of the supply through the use of unqualified teachers does not constitute a legitimate portion of the supply.

Demand means the number of new teachers needed at a given time, increased by the number of replacements, and decreased by the decline in the number of positions. In view of increasing specialization in the teaching profession, both supply and demand must be related to the qualifications and competencies of the teacher or other personnel to fill adequately the specific demands of the position under consideration. These may include a variety as well as a combination of specific qualifications which may seriously limit the supply and create an unusual demand.

These definitions are quite general and do not include certain technical phases which will be considered in later discussions. Since the maintenance of an adequate teaching personnel is an adminis-

trative responsibility, an optimum situation exists where qualified teachers can be fitted into every teaching position from a small reservoir of qualified teachers available for these positions, with few if any such teachers eventually denied positions. A quarter century ago Buckingham¹ pointed out that, in the long run, the welfare of the schools is seriously impaired if there is considerable variation from this optimum condition. Since that time numerous studies have been made which attack the difficult problem of supply and demand and seek to bring together data which will throw light on the maintenance of this balance.²

SOURCES OF SUPPLY OF TEACHERS FOR EARLIER SCHOOLS

Poor Quality of Early Teachers

When education was the prerogative of the privileged few and the mass of the people were illiterate, teachers were generally of better quality. They had the advantage of the best education of their time and were held in high respect in the community. When mass education became the accompaniment of the democratic movement, it brought with it one of education's most significant as well as difficult problems, namely, the task of providing even a sufficient number of teachers for the common schools which spread over the nation so rapidly. Teachers were selected with little regard for their qualifications because of the great demand. Cubberley puts it realistically when he points out that "teachers in elementary schools everywhere in the eighteenth century were few in number, poor in quality, and occupied but a lowly position in the social scale. School dames in England and later in the American colonies, and on the continent of Europe, teachers who were also sextons, choristers, beadles, bell ringers, grave diggers, shoemakers, tailors, barbers, pensioners, and invalids, too often formed the teaching body for the elementary vernacular schools."³ Indentured servants contributed to

¹ B. R. Buckingham, *Supply and Demand in Teacher Training*, Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research, Monograph No. 4, 1926.

² The reader is referred to *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 1950, pp. 1424-1427; also *Review of Educational Research*, "Teacher Personnel," for 1940, 1943, 1946, 1949, and 1952. See also National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Demand and Supply," *Research Bulletin*, November, 1931.

³ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, p. 446.

the ranks of teachers. In Catholic countries, teaching congregations often received the monopoly of teaching, a practice which has been the forerunner of the parochial schools' teaching orders. In America the problem was to get a sufficient number of common-school teachers not only to keep abreast of the growth of the public-school system, but to counteract the great procession and peregrination of leaving teachers who contributed to the huge annual turnover.

Need for Better-Qualified Teachers

The need for both better-prepared teachers and a sufficient number of teachers was obvious and has, let it be added, been always one of the most critical problems in teacher personnel administration. The beginnings of teacher training are generally attributed to German states,⁴ the influence spreading to America. New concepts in education characterized the movement which demanded a new type of teacher. The first normal school in America was founded in Lexington, Massachusetts.⁵ This new institution, as it grew in numbers and efficiency, created a new supply of teachers with some training in the science and art of education. Since that time institutions for the education of teachers have multiplied until there are numerous such institutions educating teachers for the schools of the United States.

Teachers in our public schools represent every racial, national, religious, and economic group. While the sons and daughters of the well-to-do are more likely to enter occupations other than teaching, families of more modest circumstances supply the largest proportion of teachers. Cultural backgrounds may be lacking in many instances, but they are more likely to represent hard-working substantial stock, sharing the strengths and weaknesses of the masses of people whose children they are leading to better living.⁶

Changing Conditions

Since so many conditions affect the supply and demand of qualified teachers, maintaining a balance has become one of the most critical personnel problems of the profession. For example, entrance

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 446, also chap. 27.

⁵ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 12.

⁶ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teachers for Our Times*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.

of the United States into World War I brought in its wake a severe undersupply of teachers which continued until about 1925. By that time the supply began to approximate the demand, and increased until in 1932 only about 40 per cent of graduates of that year were able to secure teaching positions. This became more critical as increasing numbers of persons, because of the depression, sought and gained admittance to teaching because of low entrance qualifications and local influences. Gradually the oversupply was diminished as intelligent thinking was applied to the problem. By 1941 the trend was reversed and a shortage of teachers slowly developed which became critical during World War II. Almost one-third of the 1941 staff (280,000) teachers had left teaching by 1944. In that year about one teacher in seven was new to his position. The shortage was affected by declining enrollments in teacher preparation institutions and lack of consideration of teaching as an essential occupation for draft deferment. Salaries of teachers did not meet rising costs, forcing teachers to leave the profession or secure part-time employment elsewhere. During World War II thousands of teachers labored from four to eight hours daily in other gainful occupations to supplement their insufficient livelihood. Since 1945 the situation has considerably improved largely because of greater emphasis on the economic and security aspects of the profession. We are still far from maintaining a reasonable balance between supply and demand of teachers, as well as sustaining them with an adequate professional level of support.

EVIDENCES IN SUPPLY (INDICES)

Supply in Industry

Industry and business have carefully considered the sources of supply of their personnel. The *inside* source of supply of its personnel, according to Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel⁷ is the best source for any company. At the time of selection this policy may involve a series of promotions, known as chain promotions, all along the line. When, however, the chain has been completed and no other person is available, it may be necessary to employ a person

⁷ W. D. Scott, R. C. Clothier, S. B. Mathewson, and W. R. Spriegel, *Personnel Management* (third edition) New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941, pp. 62 ff. Compare with Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration* (second edition) New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951, Ch. 12.

from *outside* the industry to fill the position vacated. Vacancies may be advertised. Training schools for its personnel may be set up within the organization from which selections and promotions may be made. Contacts through present employees or stockholders serve to increase the supply. Schools and colleges, fraternal orders and churches, employment agencies, labor scouts and unions, and advertising, all these constitute potential sources of supply for the industry. Most industries maintain lists both of available persons and possible contacts as needed. The personnel office in most industrial organizations has a very significant responsibility, due largely to the competitive nature of industry in general and the corresponding demand for competent personnel. Some methods used in business and industry are worthy of study and application to education. Much can be learned through application of proved techniques. We shall now direct our attention to an analysis of several evidences of supply commonly used in selecting teachers and other educational personnel.

Graduates

The number and distribution of teachers completing teacher education programs through graduation who are certificated and available for positions is probably the best index of supply. As an accurate source of supply, those graduates who marry, decide not to teach, teachers already in service, and those who accept other positions must of course be deleted from the list of actually available teacher graduates.

Certificated Teachers

The number and distribution of certificates issued within a given time may be a good index of supply provided that due allowance has been made for teachers already in service, those who go to other states or to private schools, or those who do not intend to teach. It is assumed that the certificated teacher is a qualified teacher. Care must be taken, however, to ascertain the specific nature of the certification status, since the certification of the teacher determines his placement in a specific position. Thus, there may be an oversupply of certificated teachers for the secondary schools, as in English and social studies, and an undersupply of teachers for the elementary schools.

Qualified vs. Unqualified Teachers

A true index of supply should always refer to qualified teachers, that is, those who have completed the basic preparation required, are properly certificated, and possess desirable personal qualities. Deduction should always be made of those who hold substandard certification in any form, or who otherwise are not qualified because of character, competency, or health. Many school systems have set up superior qualifications for certain positions, which the teacher, although certificated, is unable to meet. These may include a personality emphasis, certain experience, age or sex qualifications, or specific course preparation required for a particular position.

Type of Position

An adequate supply of teachers should comprehend proper distribution for all types of positions needed within the school system. An available supply of elementary teachers may not necessarily include a sufficient number who are qualified for primary grades or the kindergarten. In the secondary school, there may be an oversupply in some areas and an undersupply in others. Correct data on supply as well as opportunities in all fields should be utilized in advising students in teacher education institutions.

Unemployed Teachers

The available supply may include teachers not now employed including those returning to the teaching service or who may be on eligibility lists awaiting call. It may also include former teachers who find themselves unemployed and desire to return to teaching. War veterans desiring to return to teaching should be included here.

Unemployable Teachers

There is a group of otherwise qualified teachers who may be classified as not now employable. These may be unemployable for reasons of health; they may include mothers with young children, teachers on leave, or those who have retired. Still other teachers may be lacking in certain certification or other requirements and not immediately available. Some may be incompetent and, therefore, not desirable. Some may prefer the status of a substitute teacher and not be available for active duty. Many may be personally unfit.

Applications

One of the principal evidences of supply of teachers is the number and variety of applications on hand as of a particular time. These may include (1) applications in the school office at a particular time for a given position, (2) applications in commercial placement bureaus, and (3) applications in teacher-education institutional placement services. The number of applications in themselves is not necessarily a good index of the available supply. A particular position may be attractive or unattractive to the applicant for good reasons. The applicant may have filed applications for several different positions at the same time. Many who file applications already hold positions while seeking better ones. Some who apply would, if appointed, refuse the position, or refuse to leave a particular vicinity when faced with the reality of a change. Applications in placement services as a true index should be discounted because of duplications and the inactivity of many enrollees. Much of the clustering of a declared oversupply is found in larger cities with its more attractive positions and better conditions. There is always the general movement of rural teachers to suburban and urban areas.

Preservice Students

One of the best indices of teacher supply for the future is a careful analysis of the number and distribution of students in teacher education institutions. For the state as a whole, this record should be compiled by the proper teacher education division. Many local school districts look to the authorities of one or more specific institutions for a large portion of their personnel needs even two or three years ahead, designating promising young teachers still in preparation for potential positions in their schools. Some superintendents make a practice of locating likely young teachers in service, watching their development, and attracting them to their own school systems with attractive salaries and working conditions. In such instances, the ethics of the procedures used are sometimes questionable.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

Many factors affect the supply of teachers. These should be studied carefully as they pertain to the supply of all personnel. They will be presented within four classifications, (1) available teachers, (2) local policies and controls, (3) state policies and controls, and (4) eco-

nomic, social, and professional factors.⁸ They will be merely listed at this point with some interpretation following in a later section.

Available Teachers⁹

1. *Number of unemployed teachers available within a state, or a particular school district,* meeting existing standards, such as specific local requirements for each type of position, and holding valid certification, if (a) they are interested in securing a teaching position, and (b) willing and available to accept a teaching position if and when employed. Files of such persons should be kept up to date since conditions may change rapidly as to availability.
2. *Number of unemployed teachers in a neighboring state or district of that state,* meeting existing standards (as above) for each type of position and able to meet certification standards, if (a) they are interested in securing a teaching or other position, and (b) willing and available to accept such a position if and when offered employment.
3. *Number of teachers from other occupational areas who can qualify for positions if and when employed.* Many qualified teachers accept temporary employment elsewhere until such time as a favorable opportunity offers. These should not be included in the available supply, unless it is known definitely that they will accept if and when employed.
4. *Number of former teachers who desire to return to teaching employment after period of employment in other fields.* This group differs from (3) above in that they may make known their availability for immediate employment by some form of notification. This group would include mothers who, as former teachers, now feel that their home and family responsibilities are such that they can return to teaching. It may also include those who, because of circumstances, desire to return to teaching in order to make a living for themselves or their families.

Local Policies and Controls

In addition to the standards maintained for teaching positions, the supply of teachers is definitely affected by local policies and controls. Several of these will be examined.

⁸ *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin no. 10, 1933.

⁹ Available teachers (so-called) who are unable or unwilling to accept positions, if selected, must be subtracted from these totals. Teachers may decline positions because of salary, residence, distance, type of school or grade, family pressure, and other reasons.

5. *Requirements for each type of position.*¹⁰ These usually include (a) scholarship record and some evidence of intellectual abilities; (b) personal factors, and information such as age, sex, health, personality traits, interests, character record, and specific interest in and aptitude for teaching; (c) special abilities required, as in music, art, or home economics; and (d) teaching and/or activity combination, essential for a particular position, common in smaller schools. Some allowance should be made for rearrangement of combinations where a likely candidate does not meet these requirements is available.
6. *Special restrictions upon certain positions*, which might include (a) sex, as men for coaching and women for kindergarten, and (b) specialized training and/or experience or other requirements, as special class teachers.
7. *Distribution of the school population* should be taken into consideration where it affects possible availability and selection. There may be local policies as to qualifications for rural as compared with urban teachers, for elementary as compared with secondary teachers, and for different characteristics of the school population within a county or city, as ethnic groups.
8. *Extent to which qualified teachers from other states or districts may be employed*, as in the case of a bordering state, a particular institution in that state, or local residents.
9. *Specific local regulations* as to the employment and selection of married women, and factors of residence which may affect local residents as well as some requirement as to where to live. In addition, there may be regulations as to religion, race, social class, or politics. Here local regulations should be in accord with state policies and controls, and good common sense.
10. *Tests of competency*—many school systems have developed an elaborate examination system, designed to select "the best teacher." The National Teachers' Examination has been developed as a selective device and is widely used.
11. *Effects of changing standards and conditions on school policies*. Examples noted are higher preparation levels mandated or encouraged by the state, consolidation, survey results, and recommendations.

State Policies and Controls

Since education is a function of the state requiring the establish-

¹⁰ One of the newer developments in personnel administration is to have *each position* carefully analyzed as to its responsibilities, together with the desirable qualifications of an individual best fitted for selection.

ment of minimum educational opportunities and certain uniform controls and policies for its administration, there has been an increasing development of controls and policies affecting the staff personnel. This section will examine the nature of these as they pertain to state-wide administration.

12. *Standards of preparation.* The state should determine the nature and amount of preparation required for each type of position and issue the certificate based upon essential minimum requirements for that certificate.
13. *Teacher-education institutional controls.* This includes approval of the institution and the specific curricula within the institution. It includes differentiation as to standards of admittance to the institution and the specific preparation offered within each curriculum. There is great variation among states as to the nature and effectiveness of these controls and policies.
14. *Adequate records kept of the number of students in higher educational institutions preparing to become teachers* or whose programs, when completed, would qualify them for teaching certificates. These should be classified (a) by types of positions for which they are preparing to teach, (b) by length of curricula being followed, (c) by types of institutions in which students are preparing to teach.¹¹
15. *Tenure and retirement.* State laws, regulations, and policies as to tenure and retirement are important factors in supply controls. These should be noted especially when there are applications of local policies.

Professional, Economic, and Social Factors

The teaching profession is definitely affected by factors of a professional, economic, and social nature. The influence of these factors will vary with time, climate, prosperity, geographical areas, emergencies, community attitudes, and other conditions.

16. *Relative desirability for teaching*—desirability for teaching may be definitely related to comparisons made by the potential teacher with other fields of endeavor open to him as he considers such matters as: (a) comparative salaries, their range, number of increments, standards of living, stability, and opportunities for supple-

¹¹ It should be noted that the reputation of the institution is a definite factor in supply. Institutions known for poor quality in their educational offerings and lacking adequate facilities may contribute to the available supply with low placement results. This is especially true where state policies as to teacher preparation or certification are weak or nonexistent.

- mentary income if and when necessary, (b) vacations, (c) retirement provisions, (d) leaves of absence, (e) working conditions, (f) opportunities for professional growth and development, (g) community attitudes, (h) social and recreational opportunities and restrictions, and (i) intrinsic satisfaction.
- 17. *Professional prestige accorded teachers*, especially teachers in different types of positions, as elementary compared with secondary, teachers compared with administrators. These may vary greatly in communities.
 - 18. *Opportunities for positions of leadership*, as advancement to administrative positions or in the community.
 - 19. *For women, opportunities for marriage and homemaking*. Many other professions offer to women greater opportunities in this respect.
 - 20. *Older as compared with younger teachers*, that is, older teachers with less preparation as compared with younger teachers with more recent and specific preparation. Some advantage is on the side of those older teachers whose certification includes all subjects taken in their preparation program.
 - 21. *The examination system*, if used to determine eligibility, should determine merely the number to be included. Preparation for teaching should not be confused with preparation for the examination.

Summary Statement

The factors indicated above, while seemingly complete as well as complex, if taken as a whole do not take into consideration conditions which may be peculiar to a given time and place, periods of prosperity or financial depression, or emergencies as war. Periods of widespread industrial or social unrest can quickly and extensively influence many of the above factors, controlling both supply and demand in teaching. The attractiveness of a particular community, school, group of pupils, group of teachers, or even the leadership, can influence the situation. Teachers may be willing to sacrifice more desirable conditions to secure experience in a school system having a particular philosophy, procedure, or organization in its educational program. Additions to or curtailment of educational services are evident in their effects on the supply, particularly if specialties are involved. Most difficult of all to study are the variables and the operation of combinations of factors, together with slight indication of the presence of other factors in which evidence appears lacking. Naturally, data should be assembled, proper records kept,

and scientific procedures adopted, in order that the best selection may be made. There is no more important task in the administration of the schools than the selection of properly qualified personnel.

FACTORS CONTROLLING DEMAND

Demand has been defined as the number of newly appointed personnel needed to care for replacements in, and additions to, teaching and other positions. It also includes vacancies previously filled by substitutes. This definition hardly suffices in every situation, as it does not take into consideration certain educational factors which have some relationship to *demand*. The following are proposed as the principal factors which control demand. Conditions may be such as to affect variations in any of these factors and may result in decreased or increased demand, depending on the direction and degree of the variation.

1. *Number.* Account must be taken of the number of teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers actually employed during the school year in the school systems of the state. These should be classified by (a) school division or level, as kindergarten, primary, intermediate, or high school; (b) grades or subjects taught, as fourth grade, mathematics, English; (c) special types of positions, as administrative, supervisory, or other staff personnel; (d) specific assignments, activities, or peculiar combinations; and (e) sex.
2. *School population.* Variations in school population should be carefully noted by (a) ages and grades; (b) communities or areas; (c) tuition pupils; and (d) mobility of pupils from any other causes. Tables showing predictions of school enrollments should be revised constantly.
3. *Extension.* Any extension of the educational system to include new groupings, as (a) kindergarten, (b) a junior high school, and (c) adult education. Teachers may be transferred or new teachers added.
4. *Expansion.* Expansion of special educational services as (a) special subjects, music or art; (b) supervisors, (c) visiting teachers and special case workers, and (d) school nurses, pediatricians, dental hygienists, and school psychologists.
5. *Increases or decreases* as (a) size of classes; for example, in large cities a decrease of one or two pupils in the average size of the classes of the elementary school creates a significant teacher demand; (b) the teaching load which affects demand, especially in

the secondary school; and (c) where the enrollments of a particular class becomes such size that a division into sections is necessary, and (d) in the average length of teaching service.

6. *Retirement ages and policies.* For example, in one state a new law permitting teachers to retire after thirty-five years of service regardless of age has created an unusual demand.
7. *Leaves of absence.* Proportion of teachers who are eligible compared with those who take advantage of this privilege, for example, for study, travel, and maternity.
8. *Married women.* Rules and regulations governing their employment and retention, especially community attitudes toward them.
9. *General mobility.* Especially the extent to which teachers leave a state or district for employment in a neighboring state or district, or more favored climatic or economic conditions.
10. *Teachers entering other professions or occupations.*
11. *Teacher health.* Illnesses and mortality—largely individual, but may be associated with a high median age for teachers.
12. *Length of school term*—including any change in compulsory attendance period as well as summer employment.
13. *Regulations governing employment* of full-time teachers for evening schools, playground supervisors, and other part-time work, especially where certain combinations of specialties are demanded.
14. *Transfer of teachers* from one school or district to another requiring certain competencies, or from one subject area to another.
15. *Changes in school organization* or types of curricula, as consolidation, and adaptation of program to individual differences.
16. *Demand for teachers* requiring specific types of preparation and experiences, as guidance counselors.

MAINTAINING A SUPPLY BALANCED WITH THE DEMAND

It is obviously desirable that a balanced supply of adequately prepared and properly distributed personnel be maintained to accommodate the normal demand. Any fluctuations from this normal condition, whether for over- or undersupply, may bring about conditions harmful both to the teaching profession as well as the schools, and especially the children. Recognizing the need for balance, the problem remains of the responsibility for this educational function and how it can best be administered.

Basic Assumptions

As early as 1933, the *National Survey for the Education of Teach-*

ers¹² pointed out four basic assumptions for controlling teacher supply and demand:

1. Citizens of a state must believe in the fundamental value of the public schools and be willing to provide the necessary means for a reasonably continuous and adequate supply for the educational program of the state.
2. Each individual state is responsible for insuring an adequate supply of teachers, meeting adequate certification standards, which it has adapted for the several types of positions needed by (a) maintaining sufficient institutions and facilities necessary for the education of teachers, (b) certification of graduates for approved teacher education curricula, and (c) maintaining standards as needed.
3. Each state should adjust the supply and demand to prevent oversupply or undersupply through a constant study of conditions and establishing controls as needed.
4. Teachers in addition to being well-educated men and women should have had special preparation for the various types of teaching positions in operation or contemplated. This is a state as well as a local responsibility.

The pertinence of a balanced supply and demand of teachers in relation to teacher salaries and other educational problems has been pointed out by the National Education Association.¹³ Among the principles indicated are (1) Economic welfare of teachers depends much on the law of supply and demand; (2) A balanced supply and demand makes for fair wages and reasonable employment; (3) Attractive working conditions will bring highly competent teachers into contact with children; (4) There is need for continuous fact gathering and research; (5) Administration adjustments and experimentation should follow survey of conditions, and (6) The primary responsibility of leadership as to the above rests with the state educational officials.

A State's Educational Program

To make these principles effective in practice, the state educational program must contain certain features. Ordinarily this func-

¹² *Op. cit.*, p. 233.

¹³ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Demand and Supply," *Research Bulletin*, November, 1931, p. vi.

tion resides in the teacher division of the state department of education.

Implementing a balanced supply entails the following.

1. *Maintaining a continuous survey of teacher personnel.* The following factual information should be available about each teacher: training, experience if any, age, sex, place of employment if employed, salary and salary desired, residence, and teaching assignment or preferred assignment. Any other significant facts should be recorded that might refer to peculiar fitness.
2. *The formulation of a state-wide program of teacher education which will include both public and private institutions.*
3. *The maintenance of a continuous stabilized report of graduates of all teacher education institutions.* Such a report should include distribution of graduates by curricula or certification and availability for placement.
4. *The discovery of all other possible sources of teacher supply,* including those from other states and those entering the profession. Similar data should be available concerning this group.
5. *The establishing of a research organization under competent leadership* (or the encouragement of institutions or groups to the same purpose) *to make studies of teacher supply and demand.*¹⁴ This service should include relationships with strategic organizations, such as state and national teacher associations, placement services, and other research organizations likely to be interested in personnel research.
6. *Revision of certification requirements and procedures,* as a result of conferences with local school authorities, teacher education representatives, and state officials. Where the law provides for the issuance of local (emergency or temporary) forms of certification, close contacts should be maintained and proper controls exercised by the state issuance offices.
7. *Maintaining a high level of competency of all teachers through promotion of adequate salaries,* and encouragement of desirable working conditions and good morale. This may be accomplished in part through close relationships with the state and local teacher associations, state and local boards of education, as well as through direct legislation or regulations.
8. *Direct cooperation in continuous national surveys of teacher demand and supply and related studies.*¹⁵

¹⁴ A good example of this type of study is Edmund E. Collins, *Application of Selected Factors in the Supply of and Demand for Secondary School Teachers in West Virginia*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1950.

¹⁵ Annual studies of teacher supply and demand are sponsored by the National

9. *Promotion by the state of ways and means of discovering and attracting desirable personnel for the profession.* Such a policy might include ways and means of retaining good teachers in the profession as well as attracting properly qualified persons of demonstrated effectiveness who have left the profession.

In summary, there should be an increased emphasis on *quality* in all personnel in the educational profession. The nature of the profession requires the best obtainable individuals. This means that the teaching profession should demand *first option* on all young men and women of professional potentiality before any other profession, with no exceptions. Ways and means should be sought to bring this about. The profession of teaching should be made more attractive as a service to youth, challenging the best endeavors of its members, with conditions designed to this end. It is the responsibility of a state to use every endeavor possible to bring this about and to work with other states and associations for its accomplishment. To this end, leadership in the division of the state's educational department should be of a high order: men and women with adequate education, experience, personal qualities, and vision. There is no more important mission.

DETERMINING SPECIFIC PERSONNEL NEEDS¹⁶

The Need

Determining specific personnel needs is of major consideration in staff personnel administration. The previous section offers many suggestions for a definite solution of this problem. Constant study will be necessary due to the many fluctuating conditions affecting personnel and the need for them, such as changing population, retirement, economic conditions, and especially change in key positions. Complete information should be available as to (1) number and type of positions to be filled, (2) qualifications demanded, (3)

Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (National Education Association) and conducted by Ray C. Maul. These are national studies and are highly significant.

¹⁶ The student will find the following references stimulating to read in connection with this section: National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education; Twenty-Sixth Yearbook*, 1948, chap. 10; National Education Association, Research Division, "Proposals for Public Education in Post-War America," *Research Bulletin*, April, 1944, chap. 2.

present employees available for promotion or transfer, and (4) number of new personnel required. Good policy will always recognize promising in-service staff members whose competency can and should be recognized. These staff members may require retraining and additional certification, which must be taken into due consideration sometime in advance of the actual need. Extravagant promises of promotion to in-service employees should not be made, unless there is a reasonable promise of fulfillment, and then it should be on a competitive basis. At the same time, good prospects in any staff should not be denied advancement because of personal or other reasons. It is better to encourage such persons to seek advancement elsewhere as the opportunity affords if there is no opportunity locally. It always pays to play fair with teachers.

Standards

It may be well at the outset to have in mind certain standards in arriving at specific personnel needs. The following standards are suggested as a basis for determining these specific needs:

1. *Superintendent and Staff.* In every local administrative district there should be a properly qualified superintendent or similar administrative officer, responsible to the board for the successful administration of the school system, and with adequate authority to perform his task. As the school system increases in size, the superintendent should be provided with adequate staff, including one or more assistant superintendents, directors in charge of specific functions, as well as clerical workers, all well trained for their responsibilities.
2. *School Principals.* In every elementary and secondary school with six teachers or more, a half-time teaching principal should be employed, and with twelve teachers or more a full-time principal, with no teaching duties. He should be thoroughly prepared and properly qualified, with at least a master's degree in education. Each principal should be provided with adequate clerical assistance.
3. *Teachers.* The number of teachers to be required might be determined on the basis of a mean teaching load of twenty-five pupils, in no case over thirty-five pupils. All teachers should be specifically prepared for their assignments and otherwise properly qualified, especially as to personal fitness. Due account should be taken of combinations in the teaching position including extracurricular activities and other assignments and of special assignments and combinations. The minimum level of preparation should be the baccalaureate degree.

4. *Specialized Personnel.* Provision should be made in all school systems for specialized personnel necessary to provide those services now considered essential in a complete school system. These include counselors, librarians, supervisors, members of the attendance and health services, school nurses, and many others. Standards have been developed in these groups which should be carefully studied and applied, as a school nurse to every 1000 pupils under five years old, to 1500 pupils in the elementary school, and to 2000 pupils in the secondary school; and a school librarian for every 500 pupils.

Reassignment of Personnel

As teachers grow in service and demonstrate their abilities or express new preferences, the staff personnel officer will be faced with the continuous task of re-examining their qualifications and retraining them for advancement and transfer. For instance, it may be decided to open a special class for crippled children, or those with speech defects. Certain elementary teachers within the system may give promise of success with these children but may need additional preparation. There may be need to transfer secondary teachers to the elementary field, or elementary teachers to the junior high school. Secondary teachers in advancing their preparation to the master's degree level and beyond may have become interested in certain specialties, as guidance, counseling, psychological services, or the principalship, and express a desire for transfer. Change in the form of organization as from the 8-4 to the 6-6 plan, or the introduction of the "core curriculum" plan in the elementary school, or reduction in class load, will materially affect the demand. Care should be taken in the contemplation of these changes to study the effect on personnel. The return of teachers and other personnel from the armed services offers quite often a perplexing problem. They are, of course, entitled to their former positions, but often they become dissatisfied. Those now in these positions may seek retention or transfer. Retraining and transfer are essential in many instances.

An additional suggestion is offered in regard to the need for new personnel especially where changes in organization and procedure are involved, in interpreting to the staff, board, and the community the significance of the contemplated change. Violent reactions are possible when this is not done. The ambitions and jealousies of many professional people are all too well known. Certainly no one, however competent, and otherwise seemingly well fitted, should be

placed or retained in any position who does not merit the confidence of both his superior officers and those with whom he must work.

In summary, it is obvious that the determination of specific personnel needs is closely related to educational planning. The demand for teachers has a qualitative aspect. The personal fitness of the teacher, his attitudes, his cooperation, his emotional configuration, determine in large degree his effectiveness. Teachers should exemplify qualities of character, a wholesome philosophy, adherence to democratic beliefs, and a willingness to be forgotten. There is a demand for no others.

OUTLOOK IN TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

Currently (1953), perhaps the most critical problem in American education is that of providing a sufficient number of qualified teachers. Several factors have merged to bring this about: (1) rising living costs without corresponding salary adjustments which have influenced many teachers away from (a) entering the profession, and (b) continuing in it; (2) effects of World War II and the following period on the teaching personnel; (3) increasing birth rate and rising school enrollments; (4) continued employment of large numbers of low-grade teachers holding emergency certificates; and (5) vicious attacks on the public schools and on teachers in some areas designed to sabotage the public-school system and deter teachers from entering or remaining in the profession.

Numerous studies have been made to determine the supply of and demand for teachers. Most of these are on a state or regional level. Studies of national scope deserve attention because of their predictive value. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards in 1949 began an annual study of the supply of and demand for teachers, in order to ascertain the amount of preparation of all teachers measured in terms of semester hours and certification. The National Education Association points out that no study has proved so basic to intelligent planning in education. The findings of these annual reports have had a profound effect upon every phase and part of educational policy making.

They continue to point out the following: (1) a critical elementary teacher shortage continues; (2) high-school shortages decrease; (3) information as to the nature and quality of preparation is difficult to secure; (4) state department officials have meager informa-

tion on teacher supply and demand; (5) there is need to increase both the quality and quantity of teacher preparation; (6) teacher education institutions should exercise greater care in preselection and counseling; and (7) there is a great challenge to the profession to determine what constitutes an adequate program of preparation for teachers, and to establish standards by which participating teacher education institutions can be guided in this important function. Greater attention should be given to predictive studies based on enrollment analyses, shift of population, birth rate, consolidation movements, class adjustments, changing education and certification standards, employment competition especially for college graduates, guidance programs, and salaries.

By 1951, the Commission had been able to refine its techniques and gather data which have become of great value to the teaching profession.¹⁷ In that year four areas were investigated, (1) supply, (2) demand, (3) amount of preparation of elementary-school teachers now in service, and (4) probable future enrollments. The Commission found many acute as well as unsolved problems within these areas. In the elementary field much additional information is needed to establish the demand, such as (1) retiring teachers, (2) enrollments, (3) overcrowded conditions, (4) types of additional services needed, (5) replacement of inadequately prepared teachers. The Commission further pointed out the need to make the fullest possible use of available findings. Emphasis is laid on the maintenance of balance in supply and demand. An adequate supply from a reservoir of properly qualified teachers which at the same time gives reasonable assurance of a professional opportunity for every qualified teacher is the desired goal.

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has completed a predictive study¹⁸ of the probable demand for teachers during the next decade. This study was based upon forecasts of school elementary and secondary enrollments estimating an increase from 24,546,000 in 1947 to 34,091,000 in 1960, an

¹⁷ Ray C. Maul, "Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States," National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Washington D.C., National Education Association, 1951.

¹⁸ National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *Probable Demand for Teachers in the United States for the Decade 1949-50 through 1958-59, For the Period 1948-60 Inclusive*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, November, 1948.

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PART II

Providing

Teachers

*Recruitment and Preservice
Selection of Teacher Trainees*

THE nature of the teaching profession and the qualities essential in good teachers require great emphasis on recruiting and selecting desirable young people for the profession. For too long this has not been the case. Quips of a past generation as to the lowly nature of teaching have deterred many fine young people from entering it. So much has been accomplished during the past few decades in raising the professional level of teaching as to make necessary greater emphasis upon selective procedures at the point of entrance. At the same time young men and women of high quality should be encouraged to consider teaching as a great opportunity for professional service.

This chapter will discuss earlier methods of recruitment and selection, social origins of trainees, types of preservice selection, essential factors in preservice selection, and a summary of trends. The chapter closes with emphasis on selective plans in operation for recruiting teachers.

OLDER METHODS OF RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

In a day when the control of public education was almost entirely in the hands of local lay boards of education, and when few controls were exercised by other agencies outside the immediate community, it is obvious that the selection of teachers for the local schools became largely the concern of individual school-board members. Indeed, in most school districts it became the prerogative of each member of the board to name the teacher of the particular

school under his "immediate jurisdiction." Training was not considered so much a factor at a time when it was believed that "anyone could teach if he could discipline."

Factors Influencing Change

The upgrading of teachers from these lowly origins has been a long and tedious process. It was not until the selective process became more and more a professional function that improvement in the quality of teachers began to be noticeable. Three factors have influenced this movement: (1) the development of professional educational leaders such as superintendents, (2) the beginnings of the normal schools, and (3) beginnings of local and later state controls over trainees both as to preparation and certification requirements.

It should also be remembered that formerly teaching was predominantly a man's profession. The term *schoolmaster* is found frequently in copious literature. It is true that many young men entered teaching, temporarily, in order to gain an immediate livelihood, and save money while making preparation to transfer ultimately to another occupation. Low salaries, an increased emphasis upon the better adaptation of women for teaching smaller children, and the development of normal-school education brought an increasing number of young women into the teaching ranks, until at the turn of the twentieth century the numbers of men and women teachers were about equal.

Examinations

Some form of successive examinations, both oral and written, became one of the chief controls of the superintendent over his prospective teachers. These examinations were held at stated times, usually annually or when occasion demanded. They were generally tests of competency through the medium of one or more books on pedagogy to be read and mastered. Superintendents looked for such personal qualifications in teachers as character and vigor, correctness, neatness, and alertness, and such professional qualifications as (1) some practical knowledge of the branches under consideration, and (2) ability to impart the same. Carelessness and indifference were to be avoided. If successive examinations did not reveal improvement, applicants were advised to seek employment elsewhere. These examinations were attended by directors and citizens (usually the par-

ents of candidates) alike, who at the close discussed wages, school hours, books, support, the schoolhouse, and other school matters. One superintendent reported in 1878 that he held twenty-five public examinations, examined 366 male and 66 female teachers, and issued 325 of them certificates, rejecting 78 males and 20 females.

While superintendents and school boards came to rely more and more on the increasing number of normal schools for trained teachers, the examination of trainees by the superintendent continued in practice for many years, especially for elementary and rural schools. It should be remarked that, in a day when character was golden and a man's word was his bond, the reputation of a prospective teacher's family and the recommendation of the minister or other community worthy became the principal evidence of fitness for entering upon teaching. We cannot deny, however, that favoritism, both political and social, had its place in the selection of teachers whose other qualifications were often quite lacking.

SOCIAL ORIGINS OF TRAINEES

Fortunately several studies are available of the social origins and characteristics of teacher-trainees within the past fifty years. It is interesting to note that the data revealed by these studies do not show marked changes over this period of time. We have time to consider only a few of these sources and characteristics.

Nativity and Occupational Status

Students who enter teaching are predominantly native-born (81.5 per cent) with about 20 per cent foreign-born (average of eight studies).¹ Comparison with Coffman's study² in 1911 in which he found that 12 per cent were foreign-born indicates an increase in this respect. Between one-third and one-half of all trainees have come from the homes of skilled and unskilled laborers, especially those preparing to teach in the elementary schools. About one-fifth were reared in farm homes. Thus, about two-thirds of all prospective teachers have come from homes represented by these two occupational groups. Business occupations are providing an increasing percentage of teachers, especially in the secondary schools, while the

¹ Thomas J. S. Heim, *A Comparative Study of the Social and Economic Status of State Teacher College Students*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1940.

² Lotus T. Coffman, *The Social Composition of the Teaching Profession*, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911.

number coming from professional groups has been and continues to be small.

The average income of these parents has been commensurate with national averages for these groups. The evidence indicates that the average income of the fathers of the students attending liberal arts colleges is considerably higher than the average income of the fathers of students in the state teachers colleges and normal schools.

Family Status

Students preparing for teaching usually come from homes with as many as three or four children. Of necessity this reduces the amount of money available for the education of all the children, especially where the funds are limited. Material possessions as well as social advantages are limited in the homes represented by these occupational groups. Many students secured their high-school education in small secondary schools with narrow academic curricula and limited educational advantages. Many of these students continue to live at home or within commuting distance of the institutions educating them, indicating the educational advantages of proximity. In fact, many declare this to be a prompting factor to enter teaching because the educational opportunity was at hand. Teaching, especially for girls, became an easy stepping stone to financial advantages. If the college was a teachers college, they probably had little other occupational choice.

Trends

However, from all evidence at hand, certain trends are now noticeable: (1) there is now about an equal distribution of student trainees between rural and urban origins; (2) students are entering teaching at slightly lower age levels; (3) the period of training is increasing; (4) the number of men entering teaching is increasing; (5) the economic level of the parents of students is rising; (6) home environment shows more cultural advantages; (7) the neighborhood college is still an important influence on the prospective teacher; (8) the great majority of students come from homes having some religious influence, and attend some form of religious service regularly. Together with other religious or semireligious experiences, this would indicate that these experiences of our future teachers are becoming broader and more extensive.

TYPES OF PRESERVICE SELECTION

Two types of preservice selection of trainees are currently in practice. Under a plan of *selective admissions*,³ the least promising applicants are denied admission to a teacher-education curriculum or to a period of professional specialization within a curriculum. The curriculum may begin with the freshman year as in many teachers colleges, or with the junior year as in many schools or colleges of education. *Selective retentions* is a term applied to selective procedures after admission to an institution or to a curriculum. The requirements for admission to succeeding stages, as the beginnings of professional education, become criteria of advancement. *Recruitment*, which refers to the discovery of desirable and interested candidates for preservice teacher education, should not be confused with the above procedures.

In applying criteria for admission and retention, it should be noted that the progressive development of each student tends to accentuate his desirable qualities, and either improves or eliminates doubtful trainees. In fact, this should be one of the principal purposes of selective retention. While it is important to give primary consideration to better teachers for all children, the development of promising young persons as teachers should not be overlooked.

Nearly 700 articles and monographs concerning various problems incident to the preservice selection of teachers has appeared since Meriam's historic study⁴ in 1905. These studies in the main have endeavored to (1) ascertain the desirability of preservice selection, (2) formulate a criterion of teaching success, (3) identify the factors related to teaching success, (4) formulate an effective technique for the preservice selection of teachers, and (5) ascertain the practices in regard to selection admissions, selection retentions, and recruitment.

The desirability of preservice selection of teachers has emphasized four considerations: (1) the social importance of teaching emphasizes the need for seeking persons best qualified for entrance into teaching, while excluding those obviously unfit; (2) preservice selection is an essential function of a teacher education institution; (3)

³ Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 1390 ff.

⁴ J. S. Meriam, *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching*, New York Teachers College, Contributions to Education, no. 1, 1905.

an analysis of teacher supply and demand data clearly indicates the desirability of selection; and (4) increased registrations and enrollments in some institutions and curricula have necessitated the adoption of some limitations on quotas.⁵

ESSENTIAL FACTORS IN PRESERVICE SELECTION

Many criteria have been developed to assist in the selection of teacher trainees. As the ultimate success of teaching is pupil achievement, teaching success is conditioned by many teacher characteristics. These are of necessity quite complex. Moreover, there is no adequate objective measure nor is it possible to await ultimate teaching success of the trainee through trial and error procedures. Criteria must be developed and applied in the initial stages.

Authorities are in quite general agreement that the judgment of experts is the best available criterion of teaching success, where a body of information is at hand and fortified with measures of scholastic achievement. When such are obtainable, there is a fair measure of prediction as to teaching success. As we have previously pointed out, student interests and attitudes are important determining factors. Sandford and Trump⁶ have made an excellent analysis of several studies which reveal the significance of many of these factors. Our attention will now be directed to the significance of individual factors which are applicable in the recruitment and preservice selection of teacher trainees. These may be applied initially and at subsequent points in the progress of the candidate. Individual considerations may serve to give greater emphasis to one over the other.

Health

The health of the trainee is of major consideration. Many state laws require freedom from tuberculosis, venereal diseases, and physical defects likely to interfere with successful teaching. Institutional admission requirements require medical examinations to reveal these defects, if any. If the condition is remediable, temporary admission may be granted. The health examination should extend to an analysis of the student's emotional balance. Any neurotic tendencies likely to interfere with teaching school should be discovered early. The mental hygiene of the teacher has much to do with teaching success.

⁵ Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 1391.

⁶ *Ibid.*

Legal Requirements

The laws of the state should be examined for requirements as to preparation for teaching. These include age, character record, graduation from an approved secondary school or other educational qualification, health tests, residence, and other evidences of competency to perform the work of a teacher. There may be a contractual obligation to teach for a specific period of time following the training period, especially in public educational institutions.

Intellectual Capacity and Scholarship

The intellectual capacity of the student is one of the predictive measures upon which considerable reliance has been placed. Young men and women of superior ability have been urged to enter teaching. Unfortunately, teaching has not yet attracted large numbers of such persons, principally for economic reasons. It should be pointed out that superior ability alone is not always the best criterion unless accompanied by other factors, such as scholastic or other achievement, personality, interest in teaching, and health. A student's previous educational achievement may be a better measure. All institutions require evidence of achievement through the school record, which has been based largely on teachers' marks, accompanied by the principal's recommendation. Students in the upper half of a graduating class are generally admitted without further scholastic examination. Those below that level are usually required to submit further evidence of academic fitness.

Personality

Personality is an inclusive term which is designed to characterize the whole person in action in the social setting. It tends to emphasize the affective and volitional aspects more largely than the intellectual, physical, and social. While concerned with the study of self, it should always be remembered that the individual's effectiveness is determined by his social relationships. Personality is the result of heredity and learning through living. Because of the great variations in individuals, many types of personality emerge which can best be characterized by traits, values, and similar manifestations.⁷

⁷ An excellent summary of personality is found in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 806-817. See excellent bibliography, pp. 816-817.

Increasing emphasis is now being placed on the personality of the trainee. Dodge's study of personality items is interesting in this respect.⁸ He found that successful teachers were (1) more at ease in social contacts, (2) more willing to assume responsibility, (3) less subject to fears and worries, (4) more sensitive to the opinions of others, and (5) slower in making decisions affecting others. These were outstanding among the forty-three items tested. He also found that there was a significant relationship between expressed liking for teaching and a high score on the forty-three personality items.

Many objective tests and scales have been devised to secure some adequate measure of personality. While all of these may be said to have some value in themselves, they are subject to the usual limitations of objective tests. While many people are of the opinion that personality is so complex as to defy objective measurement, much progress has been made through observation, rating scales, personal reports, and other means. Perhaps consensus of judgment on the part of several trained individuals, using a few selected criteria, is the best practical measure available at the present time in selecting teachers. Any measure of personality should be interpreted together with other data concerning the candidate.

Guidance

Among many persons engaged in the selection of teacher trainees, a definite notion prevails that no entirely satisfactory method or combination of methods is yet available. There is an increasing tendency among educational institutions to admit trainees conditionally who, with proper guidance, may be developed into good teachers. Where this policy prevails, the plan is to gather all data available concerning each student at the time of entrance or at various stages during training to help diagnose strengths and weaknesses and bring about improvement. To this end available guidance services and personnel are mobilized for frequent appraisal of student progress, among them being (1) orientation courses, (2) guidance specialists furnishing information and leadership, (3) coordination of faculty as a whole on a cooperative basis with the personnel services, (4) testing procedures designed to supplement information, and (5) review of the candidate's record and progress in the light of

⁸ A. F. Dodge, "What Are the Personality Traits of the Successful Teacher?" *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1943, pp. 325-337.

further selective procedures. This plan might be considered a probationary period of preselection. There is much evidence and reason to believe that such a program is much more satisfactory to both institution and student alike, provided that the obviously unfit have been eliminated at the outset: those whose maladjustments, physical, mental, or emotional, give no promise of correction.

Selection Based on Qualities Essential in Teaching

In the selection of prospective teachers, considerable attention should be given to a careful study of the qualities essential to success in teaching. Eliassen and Martin⁹ found twenty-five items frequently employed in the pretraining selection of teachers, namely scholarship, health, personality, matriculation examination, data secured through interviews, intelligence, speech, character, recommendations, high-school graduation record, English usage, subject matter, achievement, culture, skill and interest in teaching, emotional stability, professional information, beliefs, attitudes, extracurricular activities, high-school units and patterns of training, mental health, hearing, spelling, handwriting, and pledge to teach.

While there is some duplication in the above items, they do reveal indications of the scope of the problem. There is need to validate all of these items through scientific investigation. In a later study¹⁰ these authors point out that there has been more emphasis on good personality and good health, together with more emphasize on a combination of selective techniques with efforts to determine their validity. The problem here is to arrive at a formula that will include with proper weightings all the relevant qualities of teachers related to desirable pupil growth.

Test Scores

Many tests have been developed recently to bring about better recruitment and preselection practices. Numerous studies concerning the use of these tests have been made and reported. For instance, Gould¹¹ reported the use of success ratings of principals after one

⁹ Reuben H. Eliassen and Robert L. Martin, "Pretraining Selection of Teachers during 1937-39," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, October, 1940, pp. 481-492.

¹⁰ National Education Association, American Educational Research Association, "Teacher Personnel," *Review of Educational Research*, June, 1946, chap. 3.

¹¹ George Gould, "Predictive Value of Certain Selective Measures," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, April, 1947, pp. 208-212; April, 1949, pp. 208-212.

year of service in order to relate them to certain factors in preservice education. The five best prediction factors appeared to be, in order, student teaching grade, personal interview rating, American Council on Education Psychological Examination, quality point average, and Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test. Other studies show fair predictive value for certain tests. Although none can be considered conclusive, best conclusions seem to be that (1) several measures taken together are better than a single measure, and (2) more emphasis is being placed with better success on personality evaluation.

Interests and Motives

An earnest desire to teach with an accompanying interest in children has been a consistent selective criterion. Such a criterion must be accompanied by other desirable factors giving promise of teaching success. A trainee's limitations and maladjustments may be overcome through opportunity and guidance if invigorated through the drive of professional interest. Motives of students in regard to teaching are receiving greater attention in preselection and have emphasized in recent studies.¹² Desirable motives include a desire to serve society, admiration for some teacher, consciousness of teaching aptitude, member of family of teachers, prestige, economic security, and suggestions of other members of the profession. Less influential motives include economic conditions, family pressure, and nearness to college. Selfish motives have dominated some students in selecting teaching, and include salary, long holidays, easy work, securing a job, improving social position, taking advantage of a loan, and "nothing better to do." Undoubtedly, the fact that there are few other remunerative occupations open to women has influenced many girls to become teachers. The motives of the student are undoubtedly of significance and should be carefully considered. It is needless to point out that continued good character and high moral qualities are essential to great teachers.

Some importance should be attached to the testimony of teachers who have passed through the preselection and preparation experience and have been in the classroom as teachers for a period of years. Trainees are interested in knowing if the teacher would repeat his choice of teaching if he had the chance to go over his life

¹² M. Margaret Strok, Ida A. Jewett, and Vera M. Butler, *Better Selection of Better Teachers*, Washington, D.C., Delta Kappa Gamma Society, 1943, p. 110.

again. Studies have shown that most teachers, both urban and rural, would repeat the experience. Service motives in entering teaching far outrank selfish motives. The testimony of an outstanding teacher in whom young people have confidence is a stimulus of great power in teacher recruitment.

Selection in Relation to Kind of Position

The nature of the teaching position itself is a factor that must not be overlooked in the selection of teachers. Aptitudes for elementary teaching may not necessarily be the same as those required for secondary schools or colleges. Especially is this true of such specialized fields as music, art, and physical education, as well as of nursery-school and kindergarten training.

Professional Emphasis

The professional emphasis offers the best approach in recruitment for teaching. Some aspects of this approach may be pointed out as follows: (1) Stress the desirable aspects of teaching. (2) Point out the favorable psychological and social conditions surrounding the teacher and teaching. (3) Note rising salary levels. (4) Develop the earliest expressed interest in teaching. (5) Urge teachers to urge better pupils to consider teaching as a possible professional choice. (6) Place printed and other materials concerning teaching at the disposal of likely pupils with suggestions. (7) Point out social service opportunities. (8) Visit singly and in groups teacher education institutions and teacher conferences. (9) Urge pupils to evaluate their own abilities in terms of desirable characteristics of teachers, as personality, scholarship, good health, and social qualities.

PRIMARY OBLIGATIONS OF TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS TO SOCIETY RATHER THAN THE INDIVIDUAL

The conflicting claims of society and the individual in the education of the prospective teacher have often influenced, perhaps to too great a degree, the policies of teacher education institutions in the selection of trainees. In the case of state-owned institutions, the notion has prevailed that, since they are state-owned and -operated, they have little right to deny admission to any student who meets the minimum entrance requirements. Economically, these institutions are often dependent upon fees and profits of dormitories and

dining halls for part of their support. With lower educational costs than those in private institutions, they often provide a door of educational opportunity to every youth, regardless of his vocational choices and limited means.¹³

While this notion still prevails, many teacher education institutions are taking the position that their primary obligation is to society rather than the individual, that their fundamental purpose is to educate those who can promote human welfare through teaching, rather than to offer every individual who applies the opportunity for an education, worthy as that may be. This philosophy tends to make the selective processes more and more rigorous and to encourage higher educational standards.

SUMMARY OF TRENDS IN PRETRAINING SELECTION

At this point, it will be helpful to bring together the principal findings of studies of pretraining selection.

1. There is a greater tendency to use objective measures including battery tests in the selection of teachers trainees, with only partial success. Of these no single measure is sufficient; multiple measures are more valid. The selective techniques have raised the proficiency level of teaching candidates above nonteaching students.
2. Personality is recognized as the most important single factor. There are many attempts to arrive at valid estimates, both subjective and objective. The latter are promising but not yet satisfactory.
3. Selection should be progressive with guidance at appropriate intervals. If guidance and remedial measures prove ineffective, transfer or elimination should follow. Most rejections are due to poor scholarship, personality defects, lack of culture, and faults in English usage.
4. Variables in the selective process should be studied more closely. For example, it is easier to predict success of women than men. Certain teaching fields require traits and qualities quite different from other fields. The human factor is not always predictable. Variations in subjective judgment of different individuals should not be overlooked.
5. Evidence of student leadership in high schools and colleges is significant in the selection of teachers. Teaching experience for high-school students under direction often inspires them to become teachers.
6. The best criteria of teaching success are those desirable changes in

¹³ For a good discussion of these claims, see *National Society of College Teachers of Education*, "The Education of Teachers," twenty-third Yearbook, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1935, chap. 2.

pupils that can be attributed to the teacher's influence. This can only be demonstrated through opportunity. The difficulty comes in securing valid measures of these changes, as well as in methods of their application.¹⁴

SPECIFIC PLANS FOR RECRUITMENT OF TEACHER TRAINEES

Several plans have been developed for recruiting trainees for the teaching profession. It is of interest here to set forth some of these plans and procedures which have considerable significance.

Future Teachers of America

Sponsored by the National Education Association, the Future Teachers of America was authorized by that body in 1937 in Detroit. It grew out of the Horace Mann Centennial of that year. Horace Mann's life and services to education constitute a great American ideal. The FTA is a leadership practice school for the training of leaders in education. Its purpose is not only to interest trainees in teaching, but to lay the foundation for the professional goal by enrolling all college students preparing to teach in FTA chapters. These chapters now enroll about ten thousand members in more than two hundred colleges. High-school clubs have also been organized for a similar purpose. These endeavor to interest youth in teaching and provide a means of passing on the great heritage of teaching to our finest youth.¹⁵

Recruitment in High Schools

There seems to be general agreement that teacher trainees should be recruited wherever possible within the secondary schools. Various methods have been used with some success, among them clubs, personal and vocational guidance, pupil-teaching experiences, assembly programs, and speakers. Herlinger¹⁶ reports a study in which he appointed a committee of seven teachers to render guidance service to high-school seniors, giving them current information concerning

¹⁴ Reuben H. Eliassen and Robert L. Martin, "Pretraining Selection of Teachers during 1940-43," *Journal of Educational Research*, May, 1945, pp. 666-677.

¹⁵ See yearbooks of the Future Teachers of America, Washington, D.C., National Education Association; also Wilda Freeman Faust, "Future Teachers of America," *National Education Association Journal*, October, 1948, p. 431.

¹⁶ Harry V. Herlinger, "And Gladly Teach," *Occupations*, December, 1944, pp. 147-151.

the teaching profession. Following this procedure 37 candidates out of a graduating class of 251 decided to enter the teaching profession. All were found to be in the upper fourth of the class in scholarship. College honorary fraternities interested in education have sensed the problem of recruitment and have done something about it, notably the Phi Delta Kappa¹⁷ fraternity and the Delta Kappa Gamma Society.

Some success has been achieved where pupils are asked to designate other members of their class *who would make good teachers*, with reasons assigned. Attention can be directed to the capabilities of these pupils, with appropriate guidance and direction provided for those who could qualify. An excellent motivation technique for use in secondary schools is to assign capable pupils duties related to teaching, such as taking over a class, helping other pupils, and assisting in the library. It is important to point out that interested students need encouragement and direction because of their immaturity and uncertainty of occupational choice.

FUTURE NEEDS

It must be apparent that there is an earnest effort to interest desirable youth in teaching and to develop satisfactory plans and criteria for improved selection. While some progress has been made, much remains to be done. We may never succeed finally until we have ascertained with some degree of certainty the elements of good teaching in terms of desirable changes in pupils for which the teacher has a major concern. This is the next step. We do know that pretraining selection should be a cooperative process,¹⁸ extending from early in the pupil's secondary course through to selection for the position. Then too the trend is well established that guidance accompanied by selectivity should take place throughout this same period. There is great need for refinement of procedures throughout.

Perhaps it is just as well that institutions preparing teachers are seeking to establish best practices in recruitment and selection in the light of their own peculiar problems and purposes. As the Commission on Teacher Education has pointed out, five problem areas will

¹⁷ See issues of *Phi Delta Kappan* for 1947 and 1948; also Strok, Jewett, and Butler, *op. cit.*

¹⁸ Consult Samuel E. Weber, *Cooperative Administration and Supervision of the Training Personnel*, New York, Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1937, chap. 3

be faced in improving its selection practices: (1) the competencies or characteristics that a teacher should possess, (2) the levels of competence to be required for admission, (3) the evidence that can be used to identify competence, (4) the means to be used in gathering the evidence, and (5) the interpretation that can be justified from the data gathered. Health, intelligence, and certain basic skills and knowledges must be included among generally accepted qualities.¹⁹

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What evidences of sound procedures in preselection of teachers can be found in methods used two generations ago?
2. Present a plan for cooperative effort in a secondary school to recruit for teaching.
3. Make a report on those studies which seek to predict success in teaching. Which seem most promising?
4. Examine the principles offered for pretraining selection. Can you add others? How can they be administered? Which presents difficulty in administration?
5. Is it possible to establish a formula composed of several criteria and apply it successfully to the pretraining selection of trainees? To what extent can subjective judgment be eliminated? Is it desirable to do so?
6. What legal mandates and restrictions are to be found in the laws of your state as to teacher trainees?
7. Discuss the relative merit of *selective admissions* and *selective retention*.
8. Should all trainees be excluded from entering teacher education institutions whose motives are self-centered? How would you proceed?
9. How would you go about improving the personality of a trainee?
10. Name those defects which should absolutely bar anyone from entering teaching.

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Preservice Education of Teachers

THE professional advance of the teaching profession has been achieved largely through increasing levels of pre-service preparation. While formerly little or no preparation was deemed necessary, the typical teacher now has the baccalaureate degree. Many teachers have advanced to the master's degree level. With higher levels of preparation have come a greater emphasis on the culture of the teacher, together with an increased respect for teaching on the part of the lay public. Better teachers are retained in the profession through advantageous salaries, tenure, retirement, and more desirable teaching conditions.

One of the principal features of state educational administration is the control exercised over the education of the teacher and his subsequent certification. This has extended to state ownership and control of the educational institutions which prepare him. It extends to the control of the curricula within those institutions, the supervisory functions, and the teacher's growth in service. The significance of higher levels of teacher education is all the more apparent when one realizes the teacher's increasing responsibilities, the enlarged program of the modern school, and the importance of realizing the full measure of the growth and development of each and every child.

This chapter will point out the significant factors in the preservice education of teachers: (1) brief historical approaches to teacher education, (2) influential movements in teacher education, (3) purposes of the teacher education institutions, (4) types of institutions preparing teachers, (5) general education in relation to professional education, (6) orientation and guidance, (7) forms of preservice experience, and (8) factors associated with preparation levels.

HISTORICAL APPROACHES TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Early Teachers Had Little Preparation

We have seen that one of the significant characteristics of a profession is adequate preparation. The attainment of the present professional level has been a long and tedious process, quite often contrary to popular approval. Time was when it was popularly believed that anyone who had time on his hands and some influence in obtaining a position could teach. Historians record that early teachers of poor quality came from the ranks of sextons, choristers, gravediggers, shoemakers, tailors, barbers, and invalids. School dames (older women) and indentured white servants let out as schoolmasters were not uncommon. Many were itinerant with little or no preparation for the important task, unless it be that of keeping order through the multiplication of physical means of compulsion perhaps bordering on the diabolical. Many children of the poor were apprenticed to a trade with the understanding that they be taught to read or write. Learning by rote and reciting from memory, the chief methods employed, required neither intelligence nor great activity on the part of the teacher.

The preparation of the school teacher of a hundred years ago is well summarized by Reavis and Judd:

Between the colonial period and 1840 there was little specific preparation for teaching in the public schools of the United States. The teachers rendering service in the common schools were a motley group of itinerant adventurers, ne'er-do-wells, and farmers who sought to earn a little on the side when farm duties were light. The qualifications required of teachers were so meager that almost anyone who had the courage to face an unassorted group of learners ranging from five to twenty-one years of age could find a position to teach. The examinations for certificates were conducted by school trustees, and were little more than real farces. A few perfunctory questions were all that were asked. If the candidate could claim attendance at some academy or college, usually the formality of an examination was waived. The tests of success usually came after employment and were largely physical. If the teacher could endure rigorous conditions and was able to subdue the older scholars, many of whom came to school not to learn but to make trouble for the teacher, he might last out a term of school and even be invited for another term. It was not unusual for a school to have several different teachers in a single term. Since the pay was small and the conditions

hard, the teacher did not hesitate to take his belongings and move on to another district.¹

But in a day when there was much hard work to do and the standards of education of the pioneer were low, it was to be expected that the preparation of the few available teachers was correspondingly meager. Good schools and better teachers had to await a day when the great task of establishing a nation was well under way.

Beginnings of Professional Education

The first normal school for the education of elementary teachers was opened in Lexington, Massachusetts, on July 3, 1839, with one teacher and three students. The remarkable influence and insight of Pestalozzi seemed to have stretched across the Atlantic together with the influences of patterns of educational organization and procedures which had been developed earlier in Germany and France. The spread of the idea in America must be attributed, in no small measure, to Horace Mann and later Henry Barnard who urged better-trained teachers through a professional institution specifically adapted to this purpose. By 1910 over 200 normal schools had been established with many more since that date.²

While the normal schools primarily prepared teachers for the elementary schools, a goodly proportion of all elementary teachers did not have the educational opportunities they provided. Other elementary teachers received such training as they had in the academies and high schools, in some of which professional training classes had been established. Many other institutes for more formal training came into being as the demand arose, including teachers' institutes, summer schools, and classes formed under the supervision of a superintendent of schools.³

Teachers for the academies and high schools had been prepared

¹ William C. Reavis and Charles H. Judd, *The Teacher and Educational Administration*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942, pp. 391-392.

² The student will find an interesting and concise account of the development of teacher training in E. P. Cubberley, *The History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, chap. 28. See also *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, "Teacher Education—Development in the United States," New York, The Macmillan Company, 1941, pp. 1198-1204. Also Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 23.

³ See William A. Yeager, *State Certification as a Factor in the Training of Ele-*

largely in the colleges and universities. These institutions were largely denominational, although state and private universities grew rapidly in number and influence and provided many teachers. These teachers had a higher level of education than those who served at that time in the elementary school, a phenomenon that has since generally prevailed. The colleges and universities at first resisted the introduction of professional training of teachers on the theory that he who "knew" his subject could teach it. Gradually, courses in "didactics," "pedagogics," history of education, principles of school management, and theories of education were introduced. Chairs of pedagogy were established, the first being at the University of Iowa in 1873. By 1890, 21 out of 361 institutions had established such chairs. These were later extended to departments and Schools of Education. Since 1900 the growth of higher institutions devoting whole or part time to the preparation of teachers has been rapid. More than half of all higher institutions are now engaged in teacher education in some capacity.

TABLE 5. NUMBER AND ENROLLMENT OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES^a

	Total	Publicly Controlled	Privately Controlled	Per Cent of Enrollment
Universities, colleges, and professional schools	1100	161	948	83.5
Teachers colleges	218	183	35	7.3
Junior colleges	524	207	227	0.2
	1851	641	1210	100.0
Total enrollments				
Regular sessions	2,659,021	1,354,902	1,304,119	
Summer sessions	943,021	536,823	406,198	

^a *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, chap. 4, Section I, Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1949-1950.

In 1950 there was a total of 1851 institutions of higher education in the United States, of which 641 or 34.7 per cent were publicly controlled, and 1210 or 65.3 per cent were privately controlled. Of those devoting full time to the education of teachers, 218 or approxi-

mentary Teachers in Service, Kutztown, Kutztown Publishing Company, 1929, chap. 2, for an account of the development in Pennsylvania.

The student will find a good discussion of this movement in Reavis and Judd, *op. cit.*, chap. 14.

mately 12 per cent were designated teachers colleges and normal schools, most of them being publicly controlled. Since more than one-third of the universities and colleges are engaged in some form of teacher education, and since these are largely privately controlled with little or no state overseeing except that of initial state approval, it is obvious that teacher education is now taking place in institutions and under such conditions as to indicate wide variation as to policy, selection, content, observation, practice teaching, qualitative emphasis, and other factors. There are such integrating agencies as textbooks, national professional organizations, national accrediting agencies, and perhaps common agreements in some instances. An excellent example of these wide variations in policy and procedure, even within one state, was forcibly pointed out by Risheberger⁴ in the area of practice teaching in the privately controlled liberal arts colleges, even though these institutions were accredited by the State Education Department and apparently conformed to state certificate regulations. Closer coordination of all teacher education institutions in the preparation program is undoubtedly desirable. To what degree and in what manner may be quite debatable. Involved in such coordination are issues of long standing, such as the "professionalized subject matter" approach as compared with attainment of culture, accompanied by specialization in the teaching area. There is also the issue that all teachers should be educated in publicly owned and controlled institutions on the theory that teacher education is essentially an arm of the public-school system, and, hence, should be an integral part of it.

TEACHER EDUCATION A STATE FUNCTION

The supply of teachers educated in the academies, normal schools, and denominational colleges proved insufficient for the great demand for teachers for the public schools in the newly created and expanding state school systems. Hence it became quite common for the larger cities to organize plans to prepare their own teachers. Thus city school systems established normal schools, or departments in connection with the local high schools. Many counties made similar provisions for the rural schools, usually in the form of spring

⁴ Paul E. Risheberger, *A Survey of Student Teaching Facilities and Practices in Accredited Teacher Education Institutions of Pennsylvania*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1946.

sessions, teacher institutes, and examinations. There can be no doubt that levels of teacher education have always varied widely due to the quality of preparation received in the wide variety of institutions concerned, which has led Elsbree, no doubt, to remark that "in our efforts to supply enough teachers for the public schools, we have sacrificed quality for quantity."⁵ Perhaps there was nothing else to do as long as a great demand for teachers existed, and as long as the profession was held in such low esteem with low salaries, part time service, and high turnover.

During recent years the tendency has been away from the establishment and support of local teacher education institutions and toward the establishment and support of teachers colleges and similar institutions owned and controlled by the state. Moreover, state boards of education have brought under state control the denominational colleges and specialized institutions through accreditation and inspection.

State universities receive state funds providing educational leadership, and in so doing conform to state standards and oversight. This policy is the fulfillment of one of the principal recommendations of earlier studies which pointed out that it was the responsibility of the state to establish standards for the preparation of its public-school teachers and to insure an adequate supply of teachers meeting these standards. Thus, through state ownership and direction of the state teachers colleges and state oversight of its other teacher education institutions, the states have come into direct supervision of the education of its teachers, which is as it should be.

INFLUENTIAL MOVEMENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Since 1917 a great development has taken place in teacher education. In that year the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching proposed that no teacher education curriculum should require less than two years of specific preparation, and three-year and four-year curricula soon became the rule.⁶ Sixteen years later the Report of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers⁷

⁵ Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 334.

⁶ Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for the American Public Schools*, Sec. 5, 1917.

⁷ *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin no. 10, 1933, 6 vols., especially vol. 6, *Summary and Interpretation*.

proposed state responsibility for standards of teacher preparation, better curricula, better selection and guidance, extension of periods of education to four and five years, more emphasis on general education as well as professional technical education, with effective differentiation for each type of position, more emphasis upon child study, inculcation of desirable professional attitudes, restriction of teacher education to adequately equipped institutions, and graduate work adapted to public-school needs. This document has had a profound influence on teacher education.

Commission on Teacher Education

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education began its work in 1938, using the principles and problems set forth in the publications of the Council, *Major Issues in Teacher Education*.⁸ The Commission set out to reach a working consensus on a set of convictions concerning the basic purposes of teacher education in the United States, and to determine best practices in that field. It sought to focus attention upon the fact that teacher education is a human enterprise dynamic in nature and requiring the participation of numerous persons. It emphasized the idea that improvement in teacher education is always possible, requiring continuous planning, experimentation, and evaluation.

The Commission was finally dissolved in September, 1944, with the publication of eight reports. While it is yet too early to evaluate the effectiveness of the work of this important Commission, without doubt it has contributed the most exhaustive and significant series of studies on teacher education. The Final Report of the Commission, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*,⁹ sums up in masterful fashion its findings. Never for one moment did the Commission lose sight of the major objectives: namely, to emphasize the task of teacher education to produce teachers who are superbly fitted for the task of instructing the youth of America, fit for our nation and our times. The conclusion reached by the Commission on the quality of teachers is so significant that it is reproduced at this point in full.

⁸ *Major Issues in Teacher Education*, American Council on Education Studies, Series I, vol. 1, no. 4, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1938.

⁹ Commission on Teacher Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1946.

The quality of teachers is—or should be—a matter of deepest social concern. The nation risks its entire future if it entrusts its children to the charge of men and women who are not intelligent, not informed, not skillful, not democratic, not devoted to young people and to their own calling. The nation needs teachers who are superbly fitted to their important task. It needs teachers who respect personality, who are community minded, who act reasonably, who know how to work cooperatively with others. It needs teachers whose native gifts have been highly developed through such general and professional education, whose knowledge is accurate, extensive, and increasing. It needs teachers who like and are liked by children, who understand how children grow and develop, who know how to guide learning and mediate knowledge effectively. It needs teachers who live in the world as well as in the school and in the classroom, who function as good democratic citizens in all these situations. And it needs teachers who love their work, who are skillful in evaluating for themselves how effective they are in discharging their duties, and who are continually increasing their stature as persons, citizens, and professional workers.

It is the task of teacher education in the United States to produce teachers of this caliber, teachers fit for our nation and our times.¹⁰

In order to accomplish this purpose, the Commission emphasized the following: (1) recognition of the significance of teacher education, (2) better recruitment and selection, (3) better working conditions of teachers, (4) better understandings between the several types of institutions preparing teachers, (5) greater attention to the in-service education of teachers, (6) closer relationship between teacher education and the principles of democratic living, changing social conditions, and human relations, (7) continuous examination and improvement of each institution's practices and procedures, and (8) study of issues and a greater unity of teacher education faculties in the study of their common problems wherever they exist, whether in colleges, teacher colleges, universities, or school systems of a state.

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS PREPARING TEACHERS

General Classification

From the above discussion it will be noted that teacher education is carried on in three general types of institutions, (1) a teachers college or normal school organized and administered as a separate in-

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 247.

stitution, (2) a college or university, usually of the liberal arts type, in which a department of education is maintained; and (3) a university which has a college or school of education as one of its major divisions.

State teachers' colleges are now generally state-owned and operated and an integral part of the public school system. Originally planned to provide teachers for the elementary schools they now provide, in addition, many types of teachers. For example, in one state the following teacher education curricula are available in the fourteen state-owned teacher education institutions, a total of twelve different curricula.

*Types of Teacher Education Curricula
Available in the Fourteen State
Teachers Colleges of Pennsylvania*

Type	Number of Institutions Offering
Elementary	14
Secondary	14
Health education	4
Business education	3
Art	3
Music	3
Industrial arts	3
Library science	3
Home economics	3
A typical education	2
Adult education	1
Cooperative education	1

Departments of education in liberal arts colleges are usually service organizations planned and maintained to offer professional courses which will enable students who are prospective teachers to meet the certification requirements of the states in the area served by the college concerned. Naturally, the professional education of these young people, most of whom enter the secondary schools, is limited by the scope and variety of course offerings, the instructional staff and the facilities, as well as number of students and the institutional emphasis.

Schools or colleges of education are similar in organization and administration to the state teachers colleges in that the principal

emphasis is on teacher education. They have some further advantage in that higher degrees are offered on masters' and doctors' levels, which may provide a more highly educated faculty.

Administrative Organization

Many factors have influenced the administrative organization in teacher education institutions. Some of these are (1) the founding of professorships of pedagogy (education), (2) a growing body of knowledge concerning education with differences of opinion as to the best method of utilizing it, (3) certification controls, and (4) the conflicts of opinion as to the nature and control of teacher education itself. Since many teacher education institutions have a long traditional history and are well entrenched through charter, accreditation, and influence, it has seemed best to proceed carefully where developing standards are concerned. Some of these institutions, especially liberal arts colleges and universities, have developed standards of teacher education well in advance of typical professional standards of teacher education. With a large clientele of successful teachers to their credit, who can tell them what is the best way to educate them? Anderson¹¹ has identified four patterns of administrative organization for teacher education which may well summarize the conflicting philosophies and their administration: (1) the college of education considered as a service agency for other departments of the institution and usually a department within the institution (Chicago and Iowa); (2) the college of education as a distinct professional school having a distinct and complete organization and with programs distinctly professional (Ohio State, Harvard, and Columbia); (3) the university council phase of teacher education, organized to coordinate professional and liberal education (31 per cent of all universities, for example, Syracuse); and (4) colleges having composite or multiple phases of administration and organization, with emphasis on provision for more than one program of preparation for teaching. Usually several students are permitted to register in other colleges and take sufficient education courses as electives to qualify for a teaching certificate. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers in 1930 found that three-

¹¹ Archibald W. Anderson, "Teacher Education—Organization and Administration," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 1383-1386 (see Bibliography, p. 1387).

fourths of the universities followed some form of dual administrative organization.

Within all of these plans of organization wide variation exists as to lengths of program, nature of courses to be taken, faculty assignments, registration, and educational policy. Such wide variation suggests the crucial problem of widespread disagreement over the nature of teacher education itself, as well as its administration. The time may now be ripe for a sane and serious consideration of the fundamental nature of the education of teachers.

NATURE OF THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

The preceding section discussed varying viewpoints as to the education of teachers and the emphasis to be given the several characteristics of the total program. This section will discuss the significant elements of the teacher education program.

Selective Admission

There is general agreement that preservice trainees desiring to enter the teaching profession should initially be good representatives of our democratic culture, vigorous in mind and body and with above average ability. Varied in background and talents, interested in and capable of enjoying success in the profession for which they are preparing, they should look forward to lifelong membership in it and to making some contribution to social progress through it. Those selected as teacher trainees should possess these high qualifications for their life's work, which include health and physical fitness, vitality, general intelligence, satisfactory level of academic achievement, strong interest in teaching, acceptable personal qualities, love of children, absence of defects likely to interfere with the work of a teacher, and a reasonable assurance of remaining in the profession for a reasonable time and contributing to its development and welfare. In addition, there should be some prognostication of the technical skills essential in a particular specialized interest in teaching.

Orientation

Once admitted to the institution, the student will need orientation. He should be made thoroughly familiar with the purposes of the institution which he has entered, of teaching, and of the educational

program in which he is now immersed. Orientation to be effective should be both group and individual. The selective process will continue at stated intervals both to secure a better teaching product and to assist the novitiate in his progress. The prospective teacher should now engage in self-analysis and self-education, seeking to develop his own understanding and refine his own personality.

General Education

It is important that all teachers receive a sound, general education. Teachers should be broadly cultivated persons, competent to perform their duties as democratic citizens as well as private individuals. They must be imbued with the best ideals of American culture. General education should seek to improve the students' individual powers, understandings and appreciations, and include what is generally thought of as a liberal education. General education may have a second connotation; namely, the common preparation needed by all teachers, regardless of their prospective specialties of subject of function. In this approach it may be thought of as a pattern of basic courses and experiences, not to be confused, however, with the professionalized content.

Many institutions have approached general education differently. Prall¹² has made a comprehensive study of these programs. Because of the problems involved, he found that most of the difficulties concerning general education in the teacher education program center around (1) its exact meaning; (2) the extent to which specific courses should be prescribed; (3) its effectiveness if concentrated in the first two college years as against being spread over the total program; (4) the emphasis on the subject versus needs and interests; and (5) relating it most effectively to the specific interests, needs, and abilities of each student.

Subject-Matter Preparation

The subject-matter approach to teaching has long characterized the preparation of secondary-school teachers. So deeply ingrained is this concept of preparation for teaching that subjects to be taught are written into the certification laws of the several states and upon the teachers' certificates. Teachers in secondary schools are assigned

¹² Charles E. Prall, *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1946, Part II.

by subjects and scheduled accordingly. Secondary-school pupils are ordinarily promoted by subject. Scholarship has come to have a certain connotation based on subject-matter mastery.

Unfortunately, many subject-matter instructors have approached instruction with little thought of the professional interests of prospective teachers. Thus, since these young people look forward to the teaching of boys and girls in terms of the subjects assigned, they may have great difficulty in teaching pupils as pupils, and adapting their instruction to their needs, interests, and abilities, as well as to the needs of society. Moreover, college instructors of academic subjects are unlikely to "professionalize" their teaching techniques, especially where the class is composed of persons other than prospective teachers. This problem was considered by the Commission of Teacher Education,¹³ which recommended that while a high degree of scholarly competence is essential in a teacher, such competence requires not only knowledge and personal skill but also the ability to use both effectively in the teaching relationship. Subject-matter instructors in teacher education institutions should be sympathetic to the purposes and problems of prospective teachers and adapt materials to their students' needs in cooperation with their professional associates. In the meantime, the personal and social needs of all the students should not be overlooked. There is now a well-defined movement on the junior high school level to certificate teachers to teach within this unit of organization without regard to specific subjects being written on the certificate. More emphasis is thereby placed on pupil needs and understandings, which is as it should be.

Professional Education

The professional approach in the education of prospective teachers may be characterized by two aspects: (1) professionalized subject-matter approach and (2) professional courses designed to fit the student for the specific vocation of teaching. The first of these has generally characterized the program of the normal schools and state teachers colleges, and has historically been one of the chief distinctions between them and liberal arts colleges that prepare teachers.

Professional courses, in the second instance, have long been offered

¹³ *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1946, pp. 84-89.

as a part of the necessary preparation of the teacher. In several areas teachers can profit through instruction of this nature. 1. There is material advantage in understanding the developmental approach to teaching, not only through courses in the history of education itself, but also in understanding the various aspects of the educational processes in perspective. 2. Teachers must develop social understandings and have a community awareness to understand the nature of the profession he represents and fit his pupils to live better the life they will live anyhow. 3. *A knowledge of child growth and development is essential.* While a study of human nature has long been considered an indispensable part of the education of teachers through courses in general and educational psychology, a new emphasis is now characterizing many programs. Since the major emphasis of all good teaching is childward, the child must be studied as a growing organism responding both to his internal drives and external influences. Many disciplines have been drawn upon to provide this knowledge, among them psychology, biology, anthropology, sociology, and the field of health.

The child growth concept demands a basic emphasis rather than an additional requirement. It should include (1) the fundamental structure and function of the human organism; (2) those distinctive psychological differences which affect human happiness, achievement, and social relationships; (3) the comprehension of the social structures and agencies in shaping human behavior, individual status, and life roles; (4) opportunities for social emergence and individual progress into individual personality patterns; and (5) knowledge of the technique of child study, keeping of records, and their application on various levels of child growth.

Creative Expression

Teachers need education in the expressive arts. The nature of the teacher's work is such as to demand many occasions for emotional release. Education in creative expression will assist in developing personality and provide activities for development of a greatly needed balance necessary to success in the professions. Moreover, appreciation of the arts is a characteristic of a cultural person; it enriches instruction and assists materially in the development of the personality of boys and girls.

Teachers should learn to enjoy life. The problems of life are seri-

ous and the burdens upon the teacher heavy. As the *First Yearbook* of the John Dewey Society pointed out, "It would be almost ludicrous for teachers to try to create a happier world by processes which make the teachers themselves miserable."¹⁴

Personal Needs

Teachers need an education which will meet many personal needs. Teaching requires vitality. Teachers must understand their own bodies because they need to guard their own health. They must know how to get along with people, especially since they may meet parents and others under trying circumstances. The ability to speak effectively, in good English, is essential to one who wishes to be respected as an intellectual leader. In this regard, there may be need for psychological counsel as well as remedial assistance. Success in leadership depends too upon one's personal appearance as well as health and energy. All of these can be improved by proper development. Spiritual values should not be overlooked, nor those attributes that contribute to the serene mind. Above all, the teacher should be taught to appreciate that the preparation process is one that must be continued as he matures within the profession and throughout life.

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION

One of the principal responsibilities of the teacher education institutions is the proper orientation and guidance of the student as he develops within the experiences provided. Such a program should be designed to assist in the maturation process of becoming a teacher. It should be both a professional task of specialized and designated personnel and the responsibility of each member of the staff to provide individual counseling designed to be most adequate at the moment.

The functions of guidance should provide orientation for college life and the profession in general for counseling in all its phases (academic, personal, and vocational), health services, social guidance, activities, student employment or part-time or other financial aid, occupational placement, and follow-up for graduates.¹⁵

¹⁴ *The Teacher and Society*, First Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1937, p. 326. Chap. 12 merits careful reading.

¹⁵ An excellent chapter on preferred practices in selected institutions will be found

Education viewed as adjustment involves choices at many turns. Some of these choices will need to be made in times of crises; others of less intensity may grow out of occasional situations bringing about perplexity and hence need of assistance. Again, the student may not be aware of a situation or condition needing adjustment. Students should be taught to face realities courageously and honestly, to recognize their own limitations and problems, and do something about them. Full and complete orientation and guidance in teacher education has for its ultimate purpose the realization of the full and complete significance of the teaching profession to the student and of his fitness for entrance into it.

PRESERVICE DIRECTED EXPERIENCES

The teacher education program, wisely administered, will provide the student with experiences bearing directly on the living problems he will have to meet as a teacher. As far as possible, the approach to the solution of these problems should be realistic rather than simulated. They may be divided into several groups:

1. *Activities.* Since pupil activities constitute such an important phase of the modern school program, interest and experience in some types of such activities should be an integral part of the education of the young teacher. He should understand their purposes, how to organize and sponsor them, how to participate effectively in those requiring specific skills, and how to foresee in them values in relation to the aims and objectives of education. The activity program of the elementary school should be understood as it applies to each teaching procedure, and its effectiveness appraised.
2. *Observation.* The meaning of knowledges and appreciations gained through education courses can be more clearly understood if related through observation to actual classroom situations. Provision should be made for students to observe with "seeing" eyes and an "understanding" mind. Such a program should be developed under guidance of a skilled technician and related to classroom instruction through discussion and conference. Students should be taught to identify and appraise elements of the instructional process as the first step in directed teaching. Emphasis at all times should be on the child and his progress as the focal point of good teaching.

in W. Earl Armstrong, Ernest Holles, and Helen E. Davis, *The College and Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944, chap. 2.

3. *Directed Teaching.* The student is now ready to "learn to do by doing." Under the skilled guidance of a master teacher, he will become immersed in a teaching situation which will provide, as far as possible, those types of experiences considered necessary in successful teaching, under conditions designed to eliminate the possibility of the development of undesirable habits and attitudes. All aspects of the teaching process should receive his attention. These include understanding of pupils, instruction, care of classroom instructional materials, record and reports, and the general administration of the class and school. Directed teaching may serve two purposes: (1) to enable the student teacher to test out and apply knowledge and skills learned through his education in an actual classroom experience under direction in order to transfer with greater ease into a classroom situation for which he must assume single responsibility, and (2) to appraise the quality of a student teacher's achievement as predictive of future teaching success. As such it becomes the most effective means to encourage the student teacher to complete his course or change to some other field. Wrinkle and Armentrout point out still another purpose when they state that directed teaching should help the student teacher to become a thoughtful and alert student of education, developing an attitude which will open the way for continuous improvement during one's entire teaching career.¹⁶ Success in practice teaching is one of the best indications of future teaching success. Moreover, there is a noticeable trend in commendable efforts to combine theory and practice, classroom study, and direct experience more effectively.
4. *The Internship.* The administration of directed teaching has taken several forms. It may take place in a campus school under the direction and control of the educating instructor, the student spending full time for a shorter period, or part time for a longer period. It may take place in an off-campus school both full- and part-time. Students in both instances practice-teach under the direction of a critic teacher and supervisor, returning to the campus periodically for conference. Risheberger¹⁷ has pointed out the great range in amount and effectiveness of these practice teaching arrangements.

Still another plan is the "internship." Following graduation and before the student enters upon teaching he is assigned to a particular

¹⁶ William L. Wrinkle and Winfield D. Armentrout, *Directed Observation and Teaching in Secondary Schools*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1932, p. 9.

¹⁷ Paul E. Risheberger, *A Survey of Student Teaching Facilities and Practices in Accredited Teaching Education Institutions of Pennsylvania*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1946.

school system to teach under direction for a given period as a semester or a year. In one plan the student spends one semester at the institution completing professional courses not previously completed as a part of his four year program. During the second semester he enters upon practice teaching as before for a semester, being awarded his teaching certificate upon its completion. Another variation and probably a true internship is his assignment upon graduation as a cadet on salary, within a selected school system. He may work in the school assigned as teacher-assistant, substitute teacher, or in some similar capacity. Here he gradually takes over each phase of a teaching assignment. At the end of his internship he may receive full status appointment. Internship, which had its origin in the medical profession, is a sound preparation procedure and has much to offer in the education of teachers.

PREPARATION LEVELS

The American educational system has been divided into three major divisions: elementary, secondary, and higher, corresponding roughly to preadolescence, adolescence, and postadolescence. Within these major divisions may be found other divisions—as, for example, nursery, kindergarten, primary, and intermediate in the elementary school, and the junior and senior divisions in the secondary school. Adult education may include many different types. It is generally recognized that specialized preparation and individual aptitude are essential to teach in each of these subdivisions. Curriculum choices and practice teaching assignments should be made with a view to fitness to teach in the appropriate field.

While a knowledge of specific areas of child development and individual teacher adaptation to them has much to commend itself, there would appear to be a marked tendency to break away from too highly specialized grade or subject-matter preparation and assignment, at least through the junior high school. Since child growth and development is a dynamic process, teachers should have more general knowledges and understanding of maturing childhood and the adaptation of enriching experiences at different age levels. Four observations will explain this contention: (1) evidences of individual differences and their manifestation in the wide ranges of age and ability within the same grade and school; (2) experimentation with teacher progression with the same group through more than

one grade of the elementary school; (3) the feeling that, in the junior high school, teachers may well be assigned to teach without regard to subject certification status or grade, thus placing greater emphasis on child progress and development rather than subject matter mastery; and (4) knowledge that better teaching will take place as teachers have a more complete understanding of maturation levels above and below their specific teaching assignments, together with corresponding levels of knowledges, skills, and appreciations attained.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Can you indicate possible stages in the development of teacher education?
2. Select a given (a) teachers college, (b) liberal arts college, and (c) school of education in a university, and compare them as to purposes, curricula emphasis, and success of graduates.
3. Examine the curricula of a selected teacher education institution as to points of emphasis.
4. What are the legal and professional controls over teacher education in your state? How are they exercised? What suggestions do you have?
5. Take a position on the proposition that all teachers should be educated in state-owned institutions.
6. What are the arguments of those who favor greater emphasis on general education in the education of the teacher? What general education?
7. Evaluate the contributions of (a) The National Survey of the Education of Teachers, and (b) The Commission on Teacher Education.
8. Observe and compare two teachers as to their knowledge and application of the principle of child growth and development.
9. Observe and compare several teachers in service as to deficiencies which should have been remedied in their preservice education program.
10. Study a selected institution to observe the strengths and weaknesses of the orientation and guidance programs.
11. Compare the effectiveness of different forms of directed preservice experience.
12. Should we proceed at once to require five years of preservice post-high-school education for all teachers? Critically evaluate such programs in at least two institutions: advantages? disadvantages?

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The Certification Function

UPON completion of the educational program designed to prepare the young teacher for entrance into his chosen profession, some form of personal recognition and achievement is deemed necessary as evidence of his success. The diploma of the institution is a document of ancient origin, and signifies that the holder has completed the requirements of a course of study and is entitled to all the rights and privileges pertaining to his new professional status. Such degrees as bachelor's, master's, and the doctorate carry with them certain public recognition. They indicate levels of attainment, especially if the holder has graduated from an institution which has been properly accredited.

However, in teaching as in other professions, the diploma in itself does not entitle the graduate to enter upon the practice of his chosen profession. The state has a further concern not only in his professional welfare but also in the protection of those in society who might be affected through his ministrations. The young teacher must submit further evidence of his fitness to enter upon his duties as a teacher in the form of a certificate or license. All states have assumed this activity as an essential state service for their teachers who have met the mandated requirements. While in some instances limited authority to certificate teachers has been delegated to local educational officials for limited periods and for emergency purposes, this authority has come to be recognized strictly as a function of the state educational department.

This chapter will discuss (1) the development of the certification function, (2) purposes of certification, (3) kinds of certification, (4) certification factors, (5) private-school certification, (6) principles of certification, and (7) reciprocity in certification.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CERTIFICATION FUNCTION

In the development of the professions, it was early recognized that some form of protection was necessary both to the state as well as the individual. On the one hand, the citizens of the state must be protected from the malpractice of unqualified and bogus practitioners; on the other, those skilled in some professional service need adequate protection for its legal performance, thereby to gain a livelihood. Any office of a practicing physician illustrates this principle. His office has on display evidences of his knowledges and skills through his certificates, thus inspiring a certain confidence as to his qualifications to engage in this professional service.

The certification of teachers can be traced over long periods of time. Among early records is an edict found among the rules of the Roman Empire more than 1500 years ago, making criminal the opening of schools unauthorized by the government. Licenses to teach accompanied by oaths of fealty were required long before the fifteenth century. In Europe church authorities in charge of the schools controlled the teaching function. After the Reformation the practice of ministers certificating the teachers continued. In America the function changed from ecclesiastical to lay control after Massachusetts was said to have adopted the first state certification law (1781).¹

Lay Committees

Turning now to education, the licensing of the prospective teacher was first administered by lay school committees. The candidate was called before the school committee, and if he satisfied its members in answer to simple questions of discipline, character, knowledges, skills, and especially ideals, he was given a letter indicating committee approval to teach, and was assigned to a position. Gradually,

¹ The student will find in Ellwood P. Cubberley, *History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, p. 176, a more detailed account of the development of the certification function in medieval Europe. It is interesting to note that, since the medieval church licensed both priests and teachers, a dual control over church and education was thus set up, which has since continued as the policy of the Roman Catholic Church. It should be added that this control of the licensee included establishment and control of the curriculum. Cubberley points out that one of the big battles in the process of development of state school systems has come through the attempt of the state to substitute its own organization for this religious monopoly of instruction (*Ibid.*, chap. 26).

however, town and county superintendents as well as examining boards took over this function. Many of these were as inefficient and incompetent as the lay committees. The movement, however, did mark improvement in the preparation of the teacher, for which a more professional examination seemed mandatory. Many of those who were thus "certificated" had not completed a course of study leading to graduation. As teacher education institutions developed, and as more and more prospective teachers prepared for teaching, graduation from these institutions carried with it permission or license to teach in the field in which the prospective candidate had completed his major work. For the great majority of these graduates, no official examinations were required beyond those taken in the regular course of their college or normal-school program. Specific examinations came to be required of those who had not met these requirements in whole or in part. It is interesting to note that state control of certification emerged at that point where state control was gradually exercised over the educational institution which prepared teachers. Thus it is difficult, if not impossible, to separate the certification from the preparation function, since they are so closely related.

Examinations

Since the turnover of teachers was high, and the great majority of teachers, particularly in the elementary schools, did not have the advantages of institutional graduation, the examination system came to have almost universal application and significance in local school districts. It was designed to assure the public that successful candidates were at least literate, were reasonably familiar with the content of the school program, and had some familiarity with essential skills. A considerable portion of the examination was concerned with the theory and practice of teaching based on lectures or reading one or more books on "pedagogy."

The examination system as the principal means of certifying teachers has had an extended use in the development of the certification function. Examinations were both oral and written. Oral means were used to judge the candidate's qualifications as to (1) discipline, (2) good moral character, (3) religion and politics, (4) attitude toward teaching, and (5) personal qualities. In most instances he was quizzed as to specific knowledges and skills, as in

mental arithmetic, grammar, orthography, geography, and history. The written part of the examination was usually factual, covering questions in the course of study to be taught and assigned readings in books on "pedagogy." Candidates were expected to define such terms as "improper triphthong," "cognates," "antepenultimates," and "proximate analysis."²

As time went on, the examination system was much improved along professional lines. Laymen were replaced by those in some educational capacity, presumably better qualified to conduct the examinations. Quite often, they were held at some educational institution as the developing normal schools, and followed the completion of the educational program. Short term courses, as "spring terms" following the close of the winter school term, enabled examinees better to prepare for the expected ordeal.

Most examinations were open to the public, not only to arouse the interest of taxpayers and citizens, but to exhibit the best teachers and scholars. Examinees were often expected to submit before the examination letters certifying to good moral character or the completion of required readings and study. Candidates were closely observed for evidences of emotional stability, deficiencies in morality or speech, and qualities of personal fitness and influence. Indeed, the effectiveness of all these measures depended largely on the supply of available candidates. If there were no other teachers available, the examination in all likelihood became a mere formality.

Having completed his examination successfully, the candidate received a letter certifying to his success by the board of education or the superintendent. It established his right to teach. The credential was usually limited in time, being more often a "graded" certificate, renewable on the basis of further examination and successful teaching.³

The examination system as the principal means of certifying teachers gradually gave way to credentials submitted by developing

² Isaac Stone, *The Elementary and Complete Examiner*, New York, A. S. Barnes & Company, 1864.

³ See William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, chap. 3; Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 15; and S. T. Dutton and D. S. Snedden, *Administration of Public Education in the United States*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1908, pp. 245-249.

teacher education institutions as they became accredited. These institutions retained many of the features of the examination system among their requirements. Gradually, the techniques of preselection were refined in these institutions. It is interesting to point out that most of the professions have retained intensive examination plans for state licensing, especially medicine, nursing, and law.

Professional Courses

One of the distinguishing outcomes of the earlier emphasis on "pedagogics," or the science and art of teaching, led to the development of courses in education designed to fit the young teacher for his professional responsibilities. The content of these courses took the form of history of education, introduction to teaching, school management, methods, educational psychology, tests and measurements, and practice teaching.⁴

These courses were generally termed educational (professional) courses, and are now usually required in some form as a prerequisite for a teaching certificate.⁵ The organization of these courses led to the establishment of "chairs" or departments of pedagogy (education) in colleges and universities, as well as in normal schools. Generally, the normal schools and schools of education place greater emphasis on professional education than liberal arts colleges accredited for teacher education.

PURPOSES OF CERTIFICATION

There are two principal purposes for the establishment and maintenance of an efficient system of teacher certification. The first of these is to provide some protection for the state and its citizens from the malpractice of unqualified persons. Boys and girls are entitled to teachers whom the state deems qualified to perform their professional responsibilities. The second purpose pertains to the teacher who, having demonstrated skill in his profession, needs adequate protection in its performance as well as in his livelihood gained thereby.

⁴ For a good discussion of courses taken by teachers for certification, see William A. Yeager, *State Certification as a Factor in the Training of Elementary Teachers in Service*, Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1929, chap. 3.

⁵ There is wide variation among the several states in the nature of education courses required for certification, as well as the total number of credit hours.

The State

As teacher certification became more and more the function of the state, the state as the issuing authority assumed a direct concern. The certification of its teachers, as well as other personnel, protects the state against the practice of incompetent persons. It protects the pupils against the employment of unqualified persons. It prevents employers such as school boards from employing unfit persons on the basis of favoritism in some form, thereby denying employment to qualified persons. As an outcome, the state is protected against waste in the expenditure of public funds. The state can thereby assist in maintaining a balance between the demand and supply of teachers. It can thereby effectively control the qualifications of the teacher and raise them as it deems desirable. A state certification system, properly administered, can yield information upon which a continuous inventory of teachers and their qualifications can be maintained. It can provide a basis for state support of public education. Where certification is already related to teacher education, the control of these institutions can be maintained through direct administration and/or accreditation. Credentials are examined carefully for the determination of fulfilment of state mandated requirements and procedures.⁶

The Teacher

The possession of a certificate protects the qualified teacher against the unfair competition of the unqualified teacher. It enables the licensed and qualified teacher to practice his profession and thereby gain a livelihood. It can advance the qualifications of the beginning teacher and improve the qualifications of the teacher in service. It can advance teacher competency and expose incompetency. Thus it becomes both a positive force and a protective device.

Limiting Circumstances

Limiting circumstances often prevent these purposes from being realized to their fullest extent. Many states, because of tradition or conditions beyond their control, are unable to carry out these ideals fully. Great diversity exists among states in certification, such as

⁶ Consult Benjamin W. Frazier, "Development of State Programs for the Certification of Teachers," U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, no. 12, 1938.

terminology, number of certificates issued, administrative controls, amount of education and experience required, and degrees of specialization. Even within the same state many variations exist as when the issuance of certificates is left to local officials. Teacher education institutions are coming to play a more important part in certification with great variation in the quality of preparation and procedure. Emergency conditions create problems of supply and demand. Because of these and other great variations, many states refuse to reciprocate in certification with other states.

A program of teacher certification cannot well be developed without careful study of many social, economic, political, and educational conditions peculiar to that state. Factors of wealth, nature of educational organization, traditions, quality of educational leadership, effectiveness of teacher education institutions, levels of education attained by teachers in service, levels of teachers' salaries, teacher tenure, and state and national educational trends must be considered.

CERTIFICATION CONTROLS

Local Controls

In an earlier section, we noted that certification of teachers was originally developed in each local community. Local school officers continued to exercise the licensing function throughout the nineteenth and well into the twentieth centuries. Fewer than one-fifth of the teachers had received their education in any organized teacher education curriculum; most of the teachers had little or no formal education. To provide some control over the selection and retention of these teachers, the examination became the principal means of selection, and hence of certification. Where the state prepared the regulations governing examinations and licenses, the local school authorities conducted the examinations, corrected the papers, and issued the certificates. Naturally, there were varying standards in administering examinations, correcting papers, and granting certificates. Politics and favoritism flourished in many quarters. Supply and demand were factors of considerable consequence. As always, schools in urban centers were the first to profit by improved conditions; since the rural schools were seldom able to attract and retain good teachers, perhaps these schools suffered most as to the quality of the teachers certified. Many normal schools opened up a "spring

term" of several weeks after the close of the school term for those teachers who were lacking in professional training.⁷

TABLE 6. TENDENCY TOWARD CENTRALIZATION OF CERTIFICATION AUTHORITY IN STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION (1898-1937)^a

	Number of States					
	1898	1911	1921	1926	1933	1937
1. State systems (state issues all certificates)	3	15	26	36	38	41
2. State-controlled systems (state prescribes rules, gives questions, and examines papers, county authorities issue some certificates)	1	2	7	4	3	3
3. Semistate systems (state makes regulations and gives questions; county authorities issue certificates and correct papers)	17	18	10	5	4	1
4. State-county systems (both issue certificates; county retains full control over examinations for one or more certificates)	18	7	3	2	2	2
5. State-local systems	—	—	2	1	1	—
6. County systems (county grants all certificates)	4	1	—	—	—	—

^a Benjamin W. Frazier, "Development of State Programs for the Certification of Teachers," Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education Bulletin no. 12, 1938; Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, p. 339.

About 1910, a movement developed which directed the issuance of teachers' certificates and their control toward the state education department. This trend away from local control of certification, especially the gradual elimination of the examination, is shown in Table 6. The issuance of teaching certificates locally is now generally confined to emergency situations, and then only for brief periods of time. However, local authority includes recording of certificates, recommendations for renewal of permanent certificates, and ratings when required to accompany such recommendations.

State Control

Many factors have brought about the centralization of certification in the state educational department. The first evidence appeared

⁷ Yeager, *op. cit.*, chap. 2.

when a certificate was issued having state-wide validity. Graduation from an approved teacher education institution became the basis for this action. Since it was logical that the state should gradually assume control over the preparation of the teachers for the public schools, it was desirable that the state should standardize procedures in regard to certification, not only to extend the scope of valid certificates but especially to abolish local abuses and favoritism.

Education is a function of the state, and it is logical that the licensing of the teachers should be similarly controlled. Since certification is so closely related to the preparation of teachers, including the supply and demand for them, the state can thereby achieve better balance. Improved transportation enables more students to enter teacher education institutions as well as to become available for service over wider areas. Records of teachers can be kept much better in a centralized location. Of great importance are these records when the certification status is questioned, or when such status needs to be determined for appropriations or school classification. Transfer teachers from other states can be better administered. Regulations as to age, residence, health, narcotics, alcohol, character, and other requirements of the state regarding certification are better administered under state control.

While it is the duty of a state to protect its boys and girls against incompetent teachers, it is also its duty to remove inequalities in the certification regulations and standards that result in marked differences in the quality of educational service rendered by teachers. The state should simplify certification terminology, make more uniform the many different kinds of certificates, and take into account the varying conditions under which schools are organized.

KINDS OF CERTIFICATES

More than five hundred different kinds of certifications in the several states have been identified by writers in the field of teacher certification.⁸ While there is some duplication and overlapping, several classifications of these certificates will be described.

By School Division

These include certificates which limit the holder to teach on a particular school level, as the elementary school, junior high school,

⁸ Frazier, *op. cit.*

tificate should be prominently displayed so that there is no misunderstanding in issuance, scope, and subsequent changes.

REGISTRATION. Upon issuance, a certificate should be registered with the proper administrative authority. This is generally required by law and protects both the holder and the school system. Penalties may be provided for failure to register. It is important to point out that it is just as important for the teacher to attend to his proper certification and registration as it is for administrative officers or the school board to be properly informed concerning the certification of all teachers. The laws of some states require the prominent display of the certificate, a practice commonly employed by the medical profession. It might be well for teachers and administrators to be more observant of this practice.

FEES. Many states require fees for the issuance of certificates and for subsequent renewals. These are usually nominal and enable the issuing office to become self-supporting in whole or in part. The fee must accompany the application.

Personal

NAME AND ADDRESS. Space should be provided for the name and address of the applicant, giving county or district committees designating information.

AGE. A minimum age requirement is a general prerequisite to teaching, usually eighteen years. This age is indicated in a space provided for the date of birth.

CITIZENSHIP AND OATH. Citizenship in the United States is generally a prerequisite to certification, excepting in cases of teacher exchange,⁹ with space provided. The application can also provide for signatures where oaths may be required by law, or restrictions such as freedom from communistic or secular activities.

CHARACTER. Satisfactory evidence of moral fitness and good moral character of the applicant is generally required for the issuance of a certificate. This is usually attested by a responsible school or college official. Evidence of lapses in good character such as immorality and intemperance become the basis for its annulment.

HEALTH. The physical and mental competency of the applicant is

⁹ Consult William D. Stratford, *Some Restrictions and Limitations on the Free Interstate Movement of Teachers*, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942, chap. 2.

generally determined, after proper examination, by a physician legally qualified to practice medicine within the state. Evidence of freedom from tuberculosis, venereal diseases, narcotic drugs in any form, other communicable diseases, intemperance, or any physical or mental defects likely to interfere with the practice of the profession of teaching is required. Some states require subsequent examinations from time to time in order to determine continued fitness.¹⁰

Records

EDUCATION. The educational record should accompany the application, either as a part of the application itself or as a separate credential. This should be filled out and certified to by the educational institution or institutions attended, with seal attached. Every effort must be made to avoid spurious credentials or perjured statements.

Limited certificates are generally accompanied by some provision for growth in service through additional education and/or evidence of success in teaching. Thus they are translated into a progressively higher form of certification, or are made permanent.

Life and Scope

DURATION. Certificates may be limited or unlimited in time. Limited certificates are usually of short duration, as, for from one to five years, renewable upon evidence of additional preparation, examinations, and/or successful experience. These may be made permanent in most states under certain conditions and thus become life licenses to practice in accordance with its specifications.

RESTRICTIONS. Restrictions in certification may be of two types, as to (1) the certificate, and (2) the holder of the certificate. Certificate restrictions are outlined carefully in the laws and regulations of the issuing authority and are indicated on the face of the document. Thus the holder is "licensed to teach the subjects of elementary curriculum in any elementary school," or "to teach in any high school English and social studies," or "to supervise music in any elementary

¹⁰ The teacher's health is far more than an individual problem since it affects directly and indirectly the health, happiness and success of the children. Since so many teachers do not enjoy what may be termed good health, it is important that proper controls be established which have some relation to certification. See William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, pp. 278-289.

or secondary school." The certificate may indicate a restriction in time such as three years. It may indicate a particular state or district, not being transferable to another state unless regulations as to reciprocity apply. Applicants for certificates may find their credentials inadequate and unacceptable if pursued in unaccredited institutions, or insufficient as to time, examinations, or lacking proper authorization in any form. Even basic preparation in accredited institutions may be insufficient and may affect the certificate, as in inadequate practice teaching or professional courses. It is important to point out that the responsibilities of the holder of any certificate are restricted both by the exact wording of the license and the laws and regulations which govern it.

REVOCATION. Certificates may be revoked (annulled) for cause by the authority which issues them. Causes are generally specified, and may include immorality, intemperance, incompetence, cruelty, persistent negligence, subversive tendencies, and violation of the laws of the state. Procedure is provided by law or regulation and involves due process of law.

RECIPROCITY. To provide for the migration of teachers from one state to another, many states have made provision for recognition and translation for teachers' certificates on an equivalent basis. Credentials are examined in the light of standards existing in the state where the teacher may make application. Specific requirements are often attached, such as knowledge of history of the state or its school laws. Agreements may be entered into between the issuing authorities of two or more states, so that the applicant need not be penalized unnecessarily because of unfair stipulations. Difficulties may arise where the certification standards are relatively high in one state and low in another.

Relationships

COMPETENCY. Some evidence of the competency of the teacher is generally required to renew or make permanent limited forms of certificates. For this purpose rating cards have been developed, for which anecdotal records should be kept, the teachers supervised, and a proper report certified by the proper supervisory officers. Such reports are usually accompanied by recommendations.

APPROPRIATION. In some instances the level of the certificate held determines the amount of appropriation received from the state by

the district in which the teacher teaches, thus providing a stimulus for uniform educational service as measured by certification.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND. Some elasticity is essential in the issuance of certificates in order to provide for the supply and demand of teachers. Relaxation of more rigid controls may be necessary to provide a sufficient number of teachers when the supply is limited due to war or economic conditions. Substandard certificates limited both in duration and scope may be provided locally in certain areas and at critical times. When the supply is greater than the demand, more rigid standards may be applied. Quotas may be established in teacher institutions through admissions. Much more difficult is the problem of maintaining a balance between areas showing variations in supply and demand, as illustrated by an oversupply of social studies and English teachers, and undersupply of mathematics and science teachers. Also exceedingly difficult is the problem of regulating supply and demand as between urban and similar districts more favored economically, and rural districts.

PRIVATE SCHOOL CERTIFICATES

In most states statutory control is not exercised directly or specifically over the qualifications of teachers in private, denominational or preparatory schools. In fact, most of the states' regulations are silent on the subject. School laws of Alabama, Michigan, Nebraska, and South Dakota require that private-school teachers of pupils within the compulsory school ages hold state teaching certificates. Six other states require by statute that private schools shall be taught by competent teachers. Approximately one-fourth of the states now legislate in general terms that the quality of instruction in private schools shall be equivalent to public schools. On this basis it is reasonable to expect the state to establish controls to insure such equivalency, one aspect of which should be certification of teachers.

PRINCIPLES OF A SOUND CERTIFICATION PROGRAM

In establishing or improving a sound certification program for the educational personnel of a state, certain principles should be adhered to. At the outset it should be emphasized that the certification function is interrelated with the teacher education program and cannot be considered apart from it. Both are functions of the state. The following principles are suggested:

1. Certification is a function of a state and should be administered under its exclusive authority to (1) protect the state, its schools, and its children from incompetent school personnel, and (2) protect the one certificated in the legal and professional performance of his duties and responsibilities. As a state function, it should serve to protect the local board of education and administrative officers from undue local pressures to employ unqualified teachers.

2. The certification program should be continuous and progressive. It should look to the removal of inequalities in certification requirements and standards that result in marked differences in the quality of service rendered by the school personnel.

3. The issuance of a certificate should take into consideration those qualities of personal fitness that guarantee maturity and sound health, indicated by age, physical fitness, mental ability, personality, and good citizenship.

4. Since state certification must depend primarily upon an approved teacher education program, controls should be established so that these institutions on the basis of predetermined standards guarantee to the state (a) adequate preselection, (b) personal fitness, (c) adequate scholarship, and (d) adequate professional preparation.

5. The division of the state in charge of certification should include oversight of teacher education within the state in accordance with rules and regulations adopted by the state board of education.¹¹ Such oversight should include evidence of fitness on the part of all those engaged in teacher education and its administration, both public and private. This includes certification of instructors in these institutions (public and private) and of its administrative officers. Standards for such certification should conform to the same general pattern and be determined cooperatively.

6. The basic framework of the certification function should be determined by statute. Standards for certification should then be determined by the state board of education after thorough investigation and recommendation of interested cooperating groups under

¹¹This statement is the more obvious since there are slightly more than 1200 institutions of higher learning approved by state boards or departments of education for teacher-certification purposes. The need for adequate cooperation is apparent.

the leadership of the division of teacher-education and certification. The state board should have the power to establish regulations and interpretations for the issuance of all certificates.

7. The state program should provide for three levels of certification:

- a. Initial probationary certificates based on minimum standards of preparation and valid during a period of not more than three years.
- b. Limited (provisional) certificates based upon evidence of further education and successful experience and maturity valid during a further period of not more than ten years.
- c. Life certificates based upon at least the master's degree or equivalent and successful experience of a superior grade; valid for life or as long as the teacher remains in service; void if a teacher leaves the service, but renewable under certain conditions in case of return to service.

8. Some form of emergency certification will probably be necessary in any program, due to economic conditions and fluctuation in enrollments. These may be issued either on a state or local basis. Safeguards, however, to prevent holders from teaching beyond the declared emergency period must be rigidly applied. Local administrative officers empowered to issue any form of emergency or limited certificates should be adequately controlled and safeguarded by state oversight and predetermined standards. Even during a declared emergency, some form of in-service education should be required of below-standard teachers.

9. The use of the examination in certification should be gradually diminished as the level of certificates advances. In any instance, they should be scientifically constructed and used as a *supplementary* device to ascertain certain qualifications not otherwise determined. Whenever and however used they should be closely safeguarded.

10. The certification function should include means for improving the quality of the teacher as well as the quality of instruction. It should recognize those elements of growth that make for better teachers and better teaching. Means for bringing this about should be developed and administered by the department responsible for

the certification function. These may include rating forms and their administration, specific course requirements, teachers institutes, workshops, directed travel, sabbatical leave if related to certification, and many others.

11. Classification of professional services for the purpose of developing types of certificates should be arranged with careful insight into the differentiated types of service to be rendered. Specific requirements should be made as uniform as possible, taking into consideration the program as a whole.

12. Certification standards and types should be simplified and made more uniform among the states. Consideration should be given to reciprocity among states in regard to certification on an equivalent basis, and as far as possible, on an endorsement basis.

13. State regulations as to certification should apply equally to teachers in nonpublic schools. All personnel in these educational institutions should be required to meet public-school certification standards.

14. The development and revision of certification standards and regulations should be cooperatively determined, taking into consideration all those who participate directly and indirectly in the educational program.

15. Certification regulations should be compatible with the salaries paid competent teachers.

16. A highly competent professional staff with reasonable security should be provided for the state administration of teacher education and certification. Such a staff, in cooperation with other related legally constituted authorized bodies, should be responsible for leadership in the development and revision of teacher education and certification standards. The division in charge of certification should develop the necessary routines to insure competent administration and should be responsible to the superintendent of education and the state board of education. It should maintain an adequate record of all teachers, make studies of supply and demand, supply information, cooperate closely with other state departments bearing any relation to the certificate function as in the case of state support, and develop a placement service. They should visit and advise with all approved teacher education institutions, evaluate credentials, and evaluate in-service programs and proposals. Factual, interpretative, and prognostic reports should be submitted periodically.

SUPERVISION AND REVOCATION OF CERTIFICATES

The issuance of a certificate does not of itself entitle a teacher to a position. There must be an election to a position and an accompanying contractual and salary status. Certificates once issued may be suspended or revoked for cause, among them being immorality, intemperance, incompetency, cruelty, and persistent negligence. The authority to grant a certificate is usually held to be the authority to revoke (for cause). In all cases a hearing must be held, with the right of the teacher to defend and appeal to a superior officer or the courts.

The issuance of a limited or probationary certificate does not automatically carry with it the right to a higher form of certificate at the end of the probationary period. In Wisconsin,¹² for instance, certification was denied for inability to control a school situation, instruct the pupils, demonstrate professional interest and growth, and cooperate. Knowledge of subject matter was of minor significance. Older women had less difficulty in establishing school control than younger women. Suggested recommendations include placing teachers in more appropriate beginning positions, providing in-service training and constructive supervision, and helping teachers develop in personality.

A common practice in some states is the voiding of certificates in cases where the holder does not engage in some educational pursuit within a period of as much as three to five years. Provision is made for reinstatement under certain conditions. This policy has discouraged many teachers from returning to the profession after extended absence, as in marriage. It tends, without doubt, to lift standards and increase the stability of the teaching profession.

TENDENCIES IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

The professional requirements for teacher certification include completion of courses mentioned by specific title. In many instances substitutions by title are not permitted, close adherence by title and content being demanded. The completion of so many credits and courses has developed an unfortunate tendency in state certification

¹² Lois G. Nemic, "Relationship Between Teacher Certification and Education in Wisconsin, A Study of Their Effects on Beginning Teachers," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 1946, pp. 101-132.

in that it tends to magnify in the minds of the teacher the quantitative aspect rather than the nature and quality of the preparation itself. Grace¹³ has pointed out that it tends to warp the offerings of teacher education institutions as well as the thinking of teachers and pupils alike. Emphasis upon meeting certain quantitative requirements has had a tendency to belittle them in the minds of many teachers. There has been too little focus on the real purpose of good teaching, namely child development and human behavior.

A recent tendency in certification which applies more specifically to inservice education of teachers is to place emphasis on noncourse training, such as travel, social welfare work, and workshops. While it may be necessary to specify educational requirements in terms of courses, credits, and degrees, emphasis should be transferred to scholarship, culture, breadth and quality of experience, and community-mindedness. These should constitute prerequisites to life licenses to teach.

TEACHER EXCHANGE AND RECIPROCITY

The interstate migration of teachers has now reached an appreciable extent, especially to certain states. Migration is more extensive among junior high school than elementary teachers, most extensive among senior high school teachers. Moreover, the mobility of teachers tends to increase. Reasons include ease of travel, increasing diversification of teachers, advantageous climate conditions, economic and professional interests as salaries, and out-of-state recruitment. On a national average, as many as 24 per cent of newer teachers may be out-of-state. A significant example is the increasing specialization of young Negro teachers prepared in the North who migrate to the South for their positions. Again there are great fluctuations in supply and demand, influence of teachers' agencies, and proximity of teacher education institutions as those near state lines.

Migrating teachers often find difficulty in securing proper certification. Out-of-state credits must be evaluated—often working to the discredit of the teacher if the preparing institution attended is not on some accredited list. Often there is the lack of uniform certificate terminology. Usually there is some state regulation to meet, or a required course or examination to complete, such as the school laws,

¹³ Alonzo G. Grace, "Teacher Certification a Problem in Teacher Education," *Educational Record*, January, 1942, p. 22.

state constitutions, and state history. Many of these practices appear to be unwarranted. The interstate migration of teachers should be encouraged to avoid provincialism and inbreeding of ideas and practices. Migration of teachers should assist in the dissemination of new educational ideas on a national basis. Both pupils and teachers should benefit.

INTERNATIONAL TEACHER EXCHANGE

One of the most significant movements for the cultivation of good will and accord within recent years is the international exchange of teachers in schools and colleges. This interchange has extended for many years to students who upon their return to their native land have done much to improve international relationships and understanding. It has some relation to certification in establishing some control over the quality of teachers exchanged.

In the United States private organizations and foundations have carried on academic exchange for many years. The United States Government became interested in 1912 with the return of the Boxer Indemnity to China for the education of Chinese nationals in the United States. The first organized governmental program was the Buenos Aires Cultural Convention (1936) providing for the unilateral exchange of students and teachers among the Americas. Two years later (1938) the Congress passed an act for cooperation with the other American republics, beginning the first major Federal program of international exchange.¹⁴ These exchanges included students, teachers, specialists, and students for the Near, Far, and Middle East. The 79th Congress passed the Fulbright Act providing funds from the surplus war materials as credits for educational exchanges. This program is of great significance in providing for international good will.

The preamble of the UNESCO Constitution provides: "Ignorance of each others' ways and lives has been a common cause throughout the history of mankind of that suspicion and mistrust between the people of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war." The international exchange of teachers is an important medium to promoting peace. In 1945, Great Britain and the United States arranged details for the exchange of

¹⁴ Oliver J. Caldwell, "Governmental Programs of Exchange of Persons," *Institute of International Education, News Bulletin*, January, 1949, pp. 9-13.

teachers. Each teacher was granted one year's leave of absence with pay from his own school system with each responsible for his own travelling expenses. In three years a total of 624 teachers have interchanged, distributed on all educational levels.

This program has had beneficial results in interpreting life, culture, and character, and overcoming provincialism. Vast numbers of persons in Britain and America have come to know and understand each other better. This program has also extended to Canada and France. With Germany it has been developed on a much more elaborate scale, designed to relate her people more adequately to the Western culture and promote international understanding.¹⁵

THE OUTLOOK

The education of teachers and accompanying certification have made great advances within the past three decades. The level of teacher education is advancing rapidly to the master's degree level. The issuance of teaching certificates on the college level of preparation is a commonplace. Unfortunately, the turnover of teachers, especially those of higher levels, is much too rapid in that the profession loses many fine teachers annually because of marriage, economic conditions, and, more recently, retirement. Exigencies of war, low economic return, and uncertain tenure have brought about the employment of far too many teachers with substandard education and emergency certification. Too many of these are retained beyond the period when the emergency has passed.

Certificate Not a Contract

It should be pointed out that a certificate is not a contract, nor does its possession in itself entitle its holder to a contract. The certificate is held subject to the laws which govern it. Most states have indicated specific stipulations for its retention and specific causes for its revocation. The possession of the proper certificate is one evidence of legal competency of the holder to enter into a contract, which in turn may be specified either as to exact form or stipulations. A life certificate similarly does not in itself guarantee teacher tenure. Both operate under different laws and regulations.

¹⁵ See *School Life*, December, 1948, p. 5; also Frank G. Barta, "The Exchange Program in Action," *Educational Leadership*, October, 1948.

Economic Returns

Economic returns of teaching as a profession should be in direct relation to the level of certificate held. For the time being, this may not apply to all older teachers of proven efficiency. However, as younger teachers advance in their profession, they have every reason to expect promotion in position and salary as they advance to higher levels of preparation and certification.

Life Certificates

The trend appears definitely in the direction of establishing limitations upon life certificates. Two approaches may be made: (1) to abolish all forms of life certificates, and in their place arrange for limited certificates to develop into higher forms or be further extended upon evidence of competency and growth in service; and (2) to limit a life certificate to continuance in service, lapsing automatically if the holder leaves the service, and renewable upon re-entrance under certain conditions.

Since the holder of a life certificate is ordinarily not subject to requirements for growth in service through the certification regulations, serious thought has been given to providing further means of stimulating teachers to grow in service. Improvements in service which may be provided through teacher initiative are professional readings, professional associations and conferences, travel, lectures and musical concerts, contributions to educational literature, teacher evaluation, and personal activities such as community action and hobbies.¹⁶ Administrative initiative can be responsible for the following stimulating factors: cooperative administration and supervision, as in policy formation, conferences, experimentation and research, demonstration teaching, leaves of absence, teacher intervisitation, exhibits, reading assignments, and merit rating. It is possible that some of these might be directed through the division of teacher education and certification or be planned cooperatively with teacher associations and administration groups. Teachers should constantly be encouraged to develop into superior teachers.

The end result of any program of teacher certification should re-

¹⁶I. Franklin Hand, *Factors Stimulating Senior High-School Teachers of Pennsylvania Holding Permanent College Certificate Toward Improvement in Service*, University of Pittsburgh, doctorate dissertation, 1941, chaps. 3, 4.

sult in a higher quality of teachers and teaching. Ways and means should be found through certification to improve quality through professional training designed to secure, among other things, greater knowledge of human behavior, child development, sympathy with and understanding of democratic living, ability to evaluate results of education, and skill in dealing with others. The personal fitness of the teacher should be extended to include ability to think logically, read, write, and speak English fluently, dress appropriately, be tactful and emotionally stable, be a good listener, be appreciative of the attainment of others, be neat and accurate in teaching, be cooperative, self-reliant, and creative. Scholarship should beget prudence, and position, humility. Teachers should never forget the example of the Great Teacher.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the requirements for licensing persons in other selected professions with those of teaching. Draw up a chart pointing out these comparisons.
2. Make a list of the several kinds of teaching certificates issued in your state with qualifications. Critically evaluate these in the light of certificate standards suggested in the chapter.
3. What professional education should be required for a certificate to teach? Be specific as to different types of certificates.
4. Discuss the examination system for certifying teachers for the standpoint of (a) development, (b) issues, and (c) current use.
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of accepting the recommendation of the teacher education institutions for the certification of its graduates?
6. Point out the advantages and disadvantages of certificates issued on the local level. What safeguards should be established?
7. Would you advocate a uniform teacher certification system among the several states administered by the U.S. Office of Education?
8. To what extent does certification based on the *subject* to be taught emphasize mastery of content rather than child development? Is it defensible?
9. What are the problems inherent in a program of state reciprocity in certification? Suggest solutions.
10. How frequent should (a) health examinations, (b) character references be required of teachers as a prerequisite to further certification?

11. Discuss the issues in merit rating as contingent upon further certification.
12. How can the certification function be related to a program of supply and demand of teachers?
13. Discuss the issues pertaining to life certificates.
14. Examine the principles of a sound certification system indicated in the chapter. Evaluate them. Are they defensible?
15. What are some of the values of noncourse in-service education as applied to certification? Enumerate. How would you administer them?

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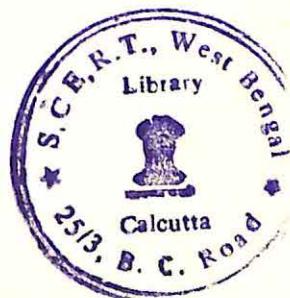
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PART III

Selection, Appointment,

and

Adjustment of Teachers





Policies and Procedures in Teacher Selection and Appointment

A COMPETENT teaching staff is one of the indispensable elements of a good school. Good instruction depends on good teachers; in fact, the focus of good administration should always be securing and maintaining good teachers and good teaching. This seems all the more evident in a civilization that is daily growing more complex, as the educational needs of children make increasing demands on the intelligence, culture, social insight, professional preparation, and personality of teachers. Again, because of the many types of teacher education institutions and the varied conditions prevailing therein, the administrator must use every feasible means of supplementing college records with other information concerning the applicant to secure the teacher best qualified for the position to be filled.

Thus the selective process becomes a complex one. It is based on a total pattern of qualifications, traits, and attitudes for each teacher, to be fitted together for a particular position. Each position is a definite part of an administrative organization, the determining philosophy of which is geared to community standards and the individual points of view of school board members and the administrative staff.

An earlier chapter emphasized the recruited teacher *preparing* for the important task of teaching. With initial education completed and certification secured, the teacher is now ready for placement in a position in accordance with his fitness to render appropriate professional service. Emphasis now shifts to the school system itself in which the teacher seeks employment. Since the selection and ap-

pointment of teachers is an administrative function, policies and procedures will be discussed from an administrative approach.¹ After a brief presentation of early procedures in teacher selection, the chapter will point out the following steps in teacher selection and placement: (1) determination of policies, (2) determination of needs, (3) determination of qualifications for positions, (4) location of desirable prospective applicants, (5) collection of information, (6) discriminatory procedures, and (7) appointment.

EARLY PROCEDURES IN TEACHER SELECTION

In a day when the attitude toward the teacher was one of "keeping school," the choice of a teacher was based largely on that ability. Since the compensation was meager and the job part-time, teachers moved in quick procession making selection frequent and the means employed haphazard. The demand exceeded the supply which added to the problem. This has led Reisner to remark that teaching was "the last measure of professional and business incompetence. It was not even a well defined trade with standards of preparation and fitness."²

Community Demands

Then too, it must be remembered that the early schoolmaster was expected to serve in other educational interests of the community, such as at spelling bees and as the interpreter of public affairs. He was often the chorister in the church. Whatever the community demanded of him became the criterion for his selection, if indeed a person could be found (and retained) for such an important task. The candidate's own admission of competence was usually accepted since there was little evidence at hand, unless it be a letter of recommendation from the minister or a family in favor.

Methods of Selection

In New England, it was the fairly common practice to appoint teachers at regular town meetings. Later, this custom was sup-

¹ Consult Charles E. Atkinson, *Techniques and Practices in the Selection of Teachers*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1948, chap. 1; A. W. Ferguson, "What a Superintendent Looks for in New Teachers," *American School Board Journal*, 1946, p. 39.

² Edward H. Reisner, *The Evaluation of the Common School*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1930, p. 393.

planted through delegation of the responsibility to the selectmen with appropriate instructions. In any event, the town meeting usually confirmed the appointment. Since the schools were so closely related to the church, the minister's approbation was quite essential.

Teachers were often located through hearsay or through advertisement in the newspaper or bulletin boards. Selection was based on some one who was both qualified and willing to teach or who would accept the meager salary which had been voted for the purpose. Many teachers received payment "in kind," that is, in goods or services, both as a part of, or in addition to, their scanty salaries. Influence then as now was a contending factor. In the South, where tutors were frequently employed, the selection of the teacher was generally a private arrangement between the parents and the tutor. Occasionally the prevailing church expressed some interest in the attitude of the teacher toward religion. A good moral character was expected, although its attainment depended largely on the "moral tone" of the community itself. In general, goodness prevailed among the pupils according to the moral influence of the teacher whose ethical teachings were instilled as he taught and whose precepts found expression in the stories of the readers of this day.³ The chief factor in his retention, however, was this success in "keeping school," in which trial and error predominated.⁴

Generally, however, the selection of the teacher was approved by city and town officials. As the free school acts which provided for local school boards or committees of education became operative, the responsibility for selection was transferred to these independent bodies, who established the conditions of employment. Gradually, both the church and municipal authorities became less and less concerned with teacher selection. It was destined to become a lay function with authority to select vested in an elected board of education. As teaching became more and more a profession and professional

³ McGuffey's readers used by the thousands in American elementary schools of past generations best illustrate this method of teaching.

⁴ Even in a modern day with better methods of selection and better education, this statement still holds true. Much depends on the assistance which the teacher gets through supervision. The student will find Jesse Stuart's *The Thread That Runs So True*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951, a story of his early teaching experiences in eastern Kentucky, delightful reading.

administrators developed, the initial responsibility of policy and procedure was delegated to them with board approval.⁵

DETERMINATION OF POLICIES IN TEACHER SELECTION

Outcomes of Early Methods of Selection

As long as teacher selection remained entirely a lay function and teachers were selected in such a haphazard manner, it is not to be wondered that teaching was unattractive and teachers generally uninspiring. Knight paints an unlovely picture of characteristic teachers and adds that the typical American school teacher has always been a timid person.⁶ Ichabod Crane is not altogether a fiction of literature. Both teachers and teaching have historically been unattractive. This has been partly due to reluctance on the part of lay authorities to relinquish the selective function to professional persons because of a desire to retain certain controls, such as the appointment of home grown persons, favored sons or daughters, and, above all, to have the "whip hand" of school control through appointment and dismissals of administrators and teachers in accordance with their own policies. Since school terms were short and the pay inadequate, many schoolmasters combined teaching with other occupations, being known as preacher-teachers, farmer-teachers, and even physician-teachers. Such persons were much more likely to be amenable to control because of their dual relationship.⁷

Teacher Selection a Professional Function

While the legal responsibility for the employment of teachers ordinarily rests with the board of education, administrators have long contended that the selection and promotion of teachers is a

⁵ William S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 4; also Henry Suzzallo, *The Rise of Local Supervision in Massachusetts*, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, no. 3, 1906, p. 154.

⁶ Edgar W. Knight, *Education in the United States*, Boston, Ginn & Company, 1929, p. 348. His chapter on "Teachers and Teaching" does not make delightful reading for the sanguinely disposed teacher.

⁷ One is led to remark that this condition still prevails. Large numbers of teachers in the American public schools hold one or more positions beyond their regular teaching duties, often doubling or tripling their livelihood thereby. This raises a fundamental question as to whether teaching is really a full-time occupation, and if it is not, how can it be developed accordingly?

professional function. The National Education Association has advocated this principle. It was recently confirmed by the Educational Policies Commission in the following statement, "The superintendent of schools should nominate all employees and the board of education should elect only upon his nomination."⁸ It should be noted that this statement of policy includes all employees.

Such a policy is predicated on three assumptions: (1) that the superintendent of schools has been chosen by the board of education to serve as its executive and professional leader; (2) that the superintendent is professionally competent to select personnel; in larger school systems he will need professional assistance in the performance of the function; and (3) that individual members of the board of education have agreed to the policy of refusing absolutely to allow their membership on the board of education to be used as a means of personal advantage or personal preference.⁹

On its part, the board of education has three responsibilities. First, the board exercises a legal authority to set up standards for the qualifications of teachers in conformity with state standards or in excess of them. Second, the board should determine the policies to be pursued in selecting personnel. Third, it is the board's final responsibility to confirm appointment upon nomination by the superintendent and determine conditions of service within the legal framework and educational policies previously determined.

Reeder sums up a desirable statement of policy with respect to teacher selection as follows: (1) that the superintendent of schools be delegated the duty of nominating all school employees to the board of education; (2) that all nominations thus made be accepted by the board unless disapproved by a majority vote; (3) that when a nomination by the superintendent is disapproved, he should make another or other nominations, rather than having the board substitute a candidate of its own selection; and (4) that all candidates for positions be instructed to send their applications to, and to promote their candidacies wholly with, the superintendent, or personnel of-

⁸ National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1938, pp. 60-61. The student will find in this book concise statement of many preferred policies with respect to educational administration.

⁹ Consult National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment," *Research Bulletin*, March, 1942, pp. 54 ff.

ficers delegated by him. This is in conformity with codes of ethics for teachers.¹⁰

A summary of practices as to the nomination and appointment of teachers in 1785 cities of the United States reveals that the superintendent is delegated this authority in 83 per cent of the cities, with higher percentages prevailing in larger cities. The number of school boards still exercising the prerogative of teacher appointment is still too large.¹¹ The selection of teachers is one of the most important functions of the superintendent, for upon his choice rests the achievement of the very essence of the school program.

DETERMINATION OF NEEDS¹²

The first step in the selection function is to determine the types of personnel needed. These fall logically in two divisions, namely, the replacement of, or addition to, existing types of personnel, and the creation of new types. The variety of personnel needed depends on the nature of the work to be accomplished. The school system may be a growing one; the state may have adopted new policies requiring new personnel; there may be a larger turnover due to retirement or some unusual condition; other factors may be present.

It is desirable that qualifications and standards of competency be set up with respect to each type according to the nature of the position. Certain specifications should be adopted, such as age, sex, education, experience, skills, knowledges, and aptitudes. Key positions may require mature, experienced teachers with higher qualifications and specific abilities.

It is assumed that the superintendent, principal, and personnel officers have made a careful inventory of existing personnel. Successful teachers within the system as they meet the qualifications should be given preferment in advancement and salary. This is a fine morale builder. Promising younger teachers should be encouraged to prepare themselves further in order to be ready for advancement. Naturally, board and administrative policies will need to be devel-

¹⁰ W. G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1941, p. 119.

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Personnel Procedures," *Research Bulletin*, March, 1942, pp. 54-55.

¹² In chap. 3, "Teacher Supply and Demand," the reader will find an analysis of the principles and practices of supply and demand which have application here.

oped and made known so that all personnel can be adequately informed concerning them.

Assignments

Policies and practices concerning the teacher's total work load are of primary importance in teacher selection. The desirable size¹³ of the class or unit is a determining factor, depending upon local or state policy or preferred practice. Since there are many variations in practice, the number of pupils varies widely. Greater consideration should be given to subject taught, number and nature of preparations, extraclass activities, community activities, and health and vitality of the teacher to carry on. Fluctuations in enrollment may influence the work load in a particular grade or subject. Changes in method, school organization as a consolidated school, educational program, supervisory personnel, and other factors should receive consideration in the selection and promotion of personnel.

A preferred plan in making work assignments is to "block out" in any school the total work load according to position. In a particular school, for example, there may be ten positions, each carefully mapped out to include teaching activities, extraclass activities, and professional and community assignments (if any). Each position should be numbered or otherwise designated. Where a vacancy occurs, the specifications of that position should be reviewed and the prospective teacher selected to fit those specifications. Upon selection, the teacher should be given the opportunity to accept or reject his assignment. If accepted it becomes his obligation to fulfill it.

DETERMINATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF PERSONNEL

Having determined the needs as to personnel, the next step is to determine the qualifications necessary in the personnel to be selected. These will be discussed.

¹³ There is little or no agreement as to desirable class size. Pupils seem to do about as well in large as in small classes, where the results have been measured. (See Paul B. Jacobson and William C. Reavis, *Duties of School Principals*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1942, pp. 466-470.) Pennsylvania indicates a ratio of twenty-two high-school pupils and thirty elementary-school pupils per teacher. There are variations in practice in regard to rural and urban schools, public and private schools, and with both normal and exceptional pupils. Favorable economic circumstances favor smaller classes. More smaller classes will be found in high schools than in elementary schools. The larger the school enrollment, generally, the larger the average class size.

Legal Qualifications

The first essential in the determination of qualifications is the careful examination of state requirements. Possession of a license or certificate presumes that the applicant has met those qualifications referring primarily to his preparation. Accompanying the certificate may be evidence of having met other requirements, such as health and age. The nature and level of position are determining factors, as well as specific services to be performed. The selection function requires that the personnel officer possess a thorough knowledge of these regulations and their application to specific situations.

General Qualifications

GOOD HEALTH AND VITALITY. General agreement seems to prevail that all teachers should possess four general qualifications. The first of these is sound health and vitality. The work of the teacher is arduous. While teaching is generally characterized by physical and mental exertion due to many pressures and demands, many teachers and administrators unfortunately have not learned how to meet these public pressures with poise and serenity. Good health and vitality so essential to good teaching insure emotional stability, without which teaching success is hardly possible. The teacher should give evidence of the practice of sensible health habits. Remediable physical defects should be taken care of and hindrances to good health eliminated. Such a teacher will be likely to maintain good hygiene conditions in the classroom. It is gratifying to note that educational institutions are giving greater attention to health factors in prospective teachers.

INTELLIGENCE. A second qualification for all teachers is intelligence. As teaching on all levels becomes more complex and creative, higher levels of intelligence are required. At the same time, higher salaries tend to attract young persons with high intelligence.¹⁴ Positions requiring specific technical knowledges and skills may require

¹⁴ While there is no desirable ceiling to intelligence, Mochlman points out that where a teacher works under direction, a lower intelligence quotient may be accepted as a qualification than where a teacher is a self-directed creative artist. For nonprofessional personnel of a technical or clerical nature perhaps a lowered mentality may be acceptable. It depends of course on the nature of the activity and the leadership and skills required (Arthur B. Mochlman, *School Administration*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940, pp. 392-394).

a corresponding intelligence. The time is long past when it was said that teaching is a "low-intelligence profession."

SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE. The third general qualification in teaching is that of social intelligence and its accompanying attributes. Teaching involves the necessity of getting along with people. Teachers should have self- as well as social assurance, poise, tact, and the ability to adapt themselves to social situations. A socially minded teacher creates an environment in which learning may take place.

A SOUND PHILOSOPHY. A fourth general qualification in all teachers is the possession of a sound philosophy, characterized by an optimistic attitude toward life. Such a philosophy should radiate good judgment, freedom from worry, a pleasing personal appearance, courage to face situations, and a sense of humor. A desirable cultural background assists markedly in influencing pupils toward the better things of life, which should be revealed in conversation, manners, attitudes, dress, and interests. Obviously, the test of these qualifications is best determined through the oral interview accompanied by unbiased recommendations.

Preparation

PROFESSIONAL. Definitely higher standards of educational preparation are now being required for all teachers. This statement applies particularly to elementary teachers. Whereas two decades ago only one in twenty elementary teachers was a college graduate, this level of initial preparation has now been reached by about half of this group¹⁵ and is steadily increasing as older teachers with less preparation reach retirement. Influencing factors are the single salary schedule and a changing attitude toward elementary teaching. In the junior and senior high schools, the typical teacher is a college

¹⁵The best index of current level of preparation of teachers is current demand. Maul states that there is still a vast number of teachers in the elementary-school classrooms inadequately prepared. Approximately 95,000 teachers in service in 1951 had not yet completed two years of college preparation, and of these, 53,000 had not even completed one year of college preparation. Increasing enrollments, retirement, low salaries, and unsatisfactory teaching conditions in some states are factors tending toward the selection of unqualified teachers on an emergency basis. Unfortunately, there is little disposition to replace many of these once they are in positions. The reader will find an illumination statement of these and other pertinent facts in Ray C. Maul, "Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States," Report of 1951 National Teacher Supply and Demand Study, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1951.

graduate, and is advancing rapidly toward the desired master's degree level, due to the influence of higher salaries, certification regulations, and the new emphasis on teacher education. Qualitatively, the education of all teachers has been greatly improved. Greater emphasis is now being placed on general education as well as breadth of training and culture. A recent stress has been placed on knowledge of and participation in activities of various sorts, since they are now coming to play such an important part in the public school program. Unfortunately, these qualifications do not apply equally to all states and districts within those states.

SPECIALIZED. In the selection of teachers, his education in areas of specialization and the specific requirement of a particular position should be considered. Indices of specialization can be determined from the nature and quality of the institution from which he graduated, the curriculum completed, number of semester hours, scope and quality of instruction, certification, and academic standing. Consideration should also be given to his specific assignment, especially if overlapping responsibilities require a combination of specialties.

Age and Experience

AGE. Minimum age limits for entering upon teaching are generally controlled through the certificate regulation, eighteen being the age most frequently mentioned.¹⁶ This conditions the length of time it takes to complete the educational program. Naturally, the longer period of preparation raises the age limit of entrance. The typical entrance age is twenty-one years. Youth measured by age in years should be related to maturity in all its forms. The upper age limits in the selection of teachers should be given consideration due to the necessity for adaptability to specific situations, as well as some measure of growth in service. There may be too brief a period to build up the necessary financial reserve for retirement in the case of those who enter upon teaching beyond forty-five years. The typical upper age limit for entrance now appears to be approximately forty years. Since the median age of teachers in the United States is ad-

¹⁶ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, April, 1947, pp. 32, 34. Alabama, Maine, and Vermont have a seventeen-year minimum. Florida and Illinois require the teacher to be twenty years of age.

vancing, the strength and vitality of the profession requires a greater emphasis on youth.

EXPERIENCE. The nature of the position may determine if an experience qualification is essential. Some previous experience may be necessary in key positions, as head of departments, and where specific skills are required, as in vocational education. Ordinarily, a good teacher education program should provide for some experience, through observation and practice teaching. Cadet training or internships are receiving attention. It is customary in larger cities and more favored schools to require previous teaching experience of selectees. Perhaps it is pertinent to point out that there is too great emphasis in larger cities on previous experience as a qualification, especially where the education has been adequate and where good supervision exists. An experience requirement in more favored school systems results in a tendency to compel the less favored schools to select initially inexperienced teachers, particularly when the more promising of these young teachers are given preference when applying for positions in the more favored schools.

As teachers become better educated, better selected, and more mature, there will be a tendency away from too great emphasis on the experience requirement. Except in key positions where obviously demonstrations of competency through experience become essential, greater stress should be given to scholarship, personality, practice teaching record, qualities of leadership, and other objective evidence of success. Likely teachers will grow rapidly in a stimulating environment and under competent direction.

Marital Status

The marital status of the selectee should not, in itself, be a determining factor. The Platform of the National Educational Association has declared that "teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic or marital status."¹⁷ The last-mentioned has been an issue for many years. Teaching has not only become predominantly a woman's profession, but has been considered by some a profession for spinsters. Until recently it has been generally held that homemaking requires the full time services of the wife and mother. However, smaller family

¹⁷ National Education Association, "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment," *op. cit.*, p. 60.

income and the scarcity of teachers have contributed to a changed attitude. On the whole, board members have been more opposed to married women as teachers than have administrative officials.

ISSUES. The arguments in favor of the employment of married women as teachers may be summarized as follows: (1) equivalent efficiency, (2) encouragement to young women to make teaching a life career, (3) decreased turnover of teachers, (4) saving of public money invested in the teacher's initial preparation, and (5) the argument that marriage and parenthood are likely to enrich a teacher's competency. The principal opposing arguments are built around the concepts of (1) denial of position to younger spinster teachers, (2) the argument that home and children must take precedence, that (3) married women often work for lower salaries, and that (4) married women teachers are not too reliable in performing responsibilities outside the classroom.¹⁸

RELATIVE EFFICIENCY. Studies of the relative efficiency of the married versus the spinster teacher have indicated little difference in relative teaching efficiency. Where the teacher does his work well, emphasis should be placed upon continued employment without regard to marital status. This would apply equally to the man or woman. The solution of the problem seems to be in developing right attitudes and in overcoming prejudices toward married women teachers through proper information and increased competency.

What has been said above does not apply to the male teacher. Marriage for him has been looked upon more favorably because of greater maturity and stability, and because, having established a home, he may thereby be more likely to remain within the community and the profession. As the increased economic and social responsibility of a home bear down upon him, a certain restiveness created thereby should be offset through advancement in salary or position. Otherwise, he may be inclined to seek part-time employment outside his profession or seek to advance himself elsewhere. Many school systems are attempting to meet this problem through the salary schedule as well as preferment for men teachers. Extra pay for extra services, though hardly defensible as a general practice,

¹⁸ Compare findings of the National Education Association in Report of the Committee on Equal Opportunity, *Status of the Married Woman Teacher*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1938.

has enabled many teachers, especially men, to remain in the profession for longer periods of time.

Residence

LOCAL TEACHERS. The opposition to married women as teachers has been offset in many school systems by a certain favoritism for local teachers. The returning college graduate now prepared to teach has had reason to expect preferment among the home folks when teaching vacancies occur. Often good teachers have been forced out to provide for such persons. Some boards of education require teachers to assume residence within the community upon appointment.

CONTROLLING FACTORS. In commenting upon residence as a factor in teacher selection, two observations are pertinent: (1) Where the welfare of the child is taken primarily into consideration in securing teachers, the best teachers should be sought out and retained without primary regard to residence; and (2) residence within the community is desirable since it encourages teachers to become an integral part of the community they serve. Teachers should know and understand the people of the community, especially the homes of their children. They should take an active part in the community's affairs and assist in solving its problems. Some assistance in enabling them to become established within the community may be necessary. They can be encouraged by reasonable expectancy of tenure and a salary enabling them to live comfortably. Some communities have established teacherages; in others there are committees of the parent-teacher association or other group who assist teachers in locating comfortably. Some personal interest in the teacher's personal welfare and happiness is likely to pay good dividends.¹⁹

Attitudes

PROFESSIONAL AND POLITICAL. The attitudes of teachers are an important criterion in their selection. Of importance is the teacher's professional attitude in general. His prevailing philosophy may be determined by the particular school system and its program into

¹⁹ Compare the movement in some communities to attract and assist young physicians through provision for a home, clinic, or hospital, and other mutual guarantees of acceptance and support.

which the selectee must fit himself. Occasionally, his political views and affiliations become the concern of those responsible for selection. To belong to one or another political party may become a serious obstacle, especially if the teacher has been actively engaged in it. To belong to any party or organization with subversive tendencies should not only bar the selectee from appointment but also from continued employment. Such individuals should under no circumstances be permitted to use their positions to disseminate propaganda designed to overthrow the established rules of the government or institution of which they are a part. Public education is an institution which perpetuates the very principles and framework of free men. Those who would destroy it have no place in it.

RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL. The religious affiliations of teachers are still a matter of considerable concern, both at the time of appointment and during incumbency. It is pertinent to remark, however, that every teacher should believe wholeheartedly in the public-school system and be thoroughly sympathetic with its aims and objectives. The attitudes assumed by teachers on racial questions, community issues, labor unions, and various community projects and activities are made a matter of public concern. No prospective teacher, or teachers in service for that matter, should be barred from selective consideration or promotion on the basis of these issues alone unless his position is not in harmony with the objectives of public education, or he descends from the dais of truth in dealing with them.

The Position

JOB ANALYSIS AND TEACHING LOAD. Good practice in teacher selection indicates that selectees should be chosen for their fitness to fill a specific position, the nature of which has been previously carefully determined. Every position should be charted and its specifications listed. These should include not only the teaching load with its subject combinations, but the activity load and other services to be rendered including the community load expected.

STOCKER'S STUDY. Stocker in a study of public secondary schools pointed out that teachers have one or more of the following assignments in addition to classroom teaching: homeroom duty, extra-curricular activity duty, study-hall duty, teacher's meetings, assembly duty, corridor duty, conferences with pupils, lunchroom duties, detention hall duties, committee meetings, other pupil supervisory and

guidance activities, library duties, departmental work, special tutoring, care of book or supply room, and miscellany of clerical duties, and office work.²⁰ A varied program of physical education and athletic responsibility complicates the situation. These assignments vary with subjects taught, size of school, age and sex of teachers, and community emphasis. An increasing emphasis on these assignments tends to increase the secondary teacher's load beyond acceptable standards and undoubtedly affects the selective procedure. Some districts have set up elaborate schedules of extra pay for services which include these responsibilities.

FULL UNDERSTANDING. The teacher should have a clear notion of his assignments at the time of selection. If he has been engaged in part-time employment, he may need to make a choice as to its continuance. Many teachers assume large responsibilities in fraternal organizations, public services, churches, and the management of family affairs which require much time and attention. Full and complete understanding should characterize the whole selection procedure.

It is important that the prospective teacher fully comprehend the philosophy and the policies of the school. It may be difficult for a "progressively" prepared teacher to fit into a traditionally academic situation. The reverse is equally true. Such projects as curriculum construction, parent-teacher relationships, and evaluation procedures, whether in progress or contemplated, should be understood and agreed to. Perhaps there is no more important phase of teacher selection than the proper orientation of the teacher to his position. The modern school system under competent educational leadership has many facets difficult to comprehend at first. Young teachers should grow into such situations. Perhaps a bright young teacher, willing to learn and cooperate, is the most likely prospect.

SALARIES. The salary schedule of the state or the district is likely to be the determining factor in fixing the teachers' salaries. Where the initial salary is sufficiently attractive, no difficulty should be experienced in agreement. Obstacles may arise at two points: (1) where likely young teachers bargain because of scarcity or competitive offers, and (2) where successful teachers become restless in their positions because of lack of recognition of their efforts, or intolerable

²⁰ Chester G. Stocker, *Teacher Load in Public Secondary Schools*, University of Pennsylvania, doctor's dissertation, 1940.

conditions, or perhaps because of more attractive offers elsewhere. Probably the best policy, in the long run, is to insist that inexperienced teachers begin according to the initial salary on the schedule. This should then be fair to all teachers in the system and avoid discontent. While an exception may be made where this is not possible, it is better to reconsider the whole salary schedule if it proves to be faulty at any point.

Good teachers should be retained wherever possible through salary or other adjustments and proper recognition. It is sad to contemplate the loss of a good teacher where this could have been avoided with little effort. On the other hand, a discontented teacher, however competent, who refuses to become adjusted after every effort is made becomes a liability and should be encouraged to make the desired change of environment for the good of all.

TENURE. The "wearing" qualities of a prospective teacher should receive attention. The right for ultimate tenure is the logical expectancy of a successful teacher. Probably no aspect of teacher's position has been subjected to as much discussion as tenure; hence care must be exercised at the time of appointment, since tenure laws and decisions seem to favor the teacher. This naturally suggests selective elimination at the point of entrance. Difficulty in eliminating unfit teachers in service, especially if they are local residents, should be constantly kept in mind. The resulting unsavory publicity may be harmful to all concerned.

LOCATING PROSPECTIVE CANDIDATES

It is generally agreed that it is a professional administration responsibility to seek and attract desirable candidates for vacancies and new positions as they arise in the staff.²¹ When positions are scarce prospective teachers will tend to become actively engaged in seeking positions offering the greatest advantages. A scarcity of teachers usually necessitates lowered qualifications which may tend to encourage the employment of persons of lesser competency. The problem is how to maintain a balance between supply and demand at all times.

²¹ Atkinson's study of preferred school systems (*op. cit.*) shows that in 87.7 per cent of cities studied, the superintendent of schools is granted authority of the board of education to select and nominate applicants for teaching positions.

Table 7 gives some indication of the methods and effectiveness of recruiting applicants for teaching positions.

TABLE 7. PRACTICES IN THE RECRUITMENT OF TEACHERS^a

Practice	Per Cent of Cities Using This Practice ^b	Per Cent of Cities Reporting Most Productive Practice ^c
1. Get names from placement bureaus of Teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities	94	66
Commercial teachers agencies	51	6
State departments of education or state employment service	28	3
State Teachers associations	16	1
2. Use applications sent in voluntarily by candidates	92	19
3. Make inquiries at conventions and similar gatherings	33	2 ^d
4. Make inquiries in other school systems	29	no report
5. Publish announcements of positions to be filled	15	2
6. Other practices	8	1

^a National Education Association, "Teacher Personnel Practices, 1950-51, Appointment and Termination of Service," *Research Division*, February 1952, pp. 15-16.

^b Includes 1611 cities reporting.

^c Includes 1027 cities reporting.

^d Includes direct recruitment by various means.

In the table, it is apparent that a variety of practices is used by superintendents in locating applicants. Outstanding in order are the services of the placement bureaus of teacher education institutions, applications of candidates, commercial teachers' agencies, and inquiries made in other school systems, with more than half of all recruits being secured through teacher education placement services. About one quarter of all teachers appear to be selected through their own applications. About one in ten are placed by a commercial agency. The larger the city, the greater the tendency to select from the list of applicants on hand; the smaller the city, the greater the tendency to secure recruits from the placement services of (1) teacher education institutions, and (2) commercial agencies. It should also be noted that there is an increasing tendency, although still negligible, to secure recruits by means of observation of promising practice

teachers, encouragement of promising high-school graduates, personal visits to school systems, and professional contacts of superintendents. A few teachers still apply and receive positions through suggestions of book company representatives, political leaders, and relatives and friends. Many school officials keep active files of prospective candidates, collecting information concerning them, and examining the files when vacancies occur, assuring promising applicants positions as soon as one is available. There can be no objection to this procedure if no ethical standard is violated.

COLLECTING INFORMATION

To arrive at an adequate understanding of the applicant, a body of information is essential. The application blank is the principal means used to secure this information. Accompanying it are other types of information which include qualitative data and material ordinarily not adapted to the application blank.

Application Blank

The teacher's application blank serves as a formal introduction to the application and is an integral part of the selection procedures. As the applicant fills in the desired information, he gains thereby some insight into the school's policies. While many items appear to be common to all applications, the form should retain enough individuality to identify it with a specific section of the country, and designed to fit the needs of the particular school system and community. Atkinson²² found considerable variation in the forms used. Usually they are a four-page printed folder, size 8½ x 11 inches. The application blank should contain the following information: (1) information concerning the school, (2) personal information concerning the applicant, including his teaching preferences, (3) education and certification, (4) special qualifications, (5) teaching and other experiences, and (6) references. All application blanks should contain sufficient information to the candidate concerning school policies. A recent photograph of the applicant should accompany the application. While the photograph may give some indication of his personality, a personal interview is indispensable in order to observe all characteristics.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 51.

Health Status

Increasing importance is attached to the health and vitality of all school personnel. In addition to the information secured in the application form and from the teacher education institution, many school systems are now requiring a medical examination of the applicant as a part of the selective process.

Academic and Professional Records

The applicant's full academic and professional record is an integral part of his selection data. Teacher education institutions should submit this information on standard forms with full explanation of symbols and accompanied by statements as to honors, contributions, and activities. Wherever possible, school officials should secure additional information through personal visitation to the institution especially in regard to practice teaching record, activities, character, and especial fitness.

References

Considerable importance is usually attached to the references named by the applicant and the statements made by them. Great emphasis is laid on professional statements, especially those which are solicited through direct contact by school officials. Morissett²³ points out that letters of recommendation should have as their object the best interests and the educational welfare of boys and girls. They should render a professional service and contain information which gives a true picture of the candidate. Letters of recommendation are confidential and should be so treated. It should be pointed out, however, that candidates should not be selected on the basis of references alone. An oral interview should supplement all other information. All references should be specific; general letters of recommendation are of little real value.

The Written Examination—National Teachers' Examination

Written examinations have long been in use in the selection of teachers and in successive steps in teacher certification. Gradually they are being replaced by certification based on college and university

²³ Lloyd N. Morissett, *Letters of Recommendation*, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education no. 641, 1935, especially chap. 12.

sity credits and recommendations. The success of the civil service examination technique as a means of selection has encouraged its use as a selective device with school personnel.

A great impetus was given to the use of the examination in 1940 as a major factor in teacher selection when the National Teachers' Examinations were introduced. These examinations cover a wide range of information that few, if any, candidates are able to supply completely and correctly. The first part of the examination is a non-verbal intelligence test followed by an English comprehension test and an English expression test. The second part pertains to general culture, and includes current social problems, history and social studies, literature, science, fine arts, and mathematics. An inventory of the candidates' points of view, goals, and methods of professional education follows. The last section deals with contemporary affairs. Optional examinations may be taken in fields of subject matter specialization.

The examinations are sponsored by the American Council on Education and are given annually in about seventy-five centers in the United States. All papers are scored by a central office and scores returned to the candidates and the school system of his choice. From these scores candidates are called for interviews and other selective data studied. Those finally selected are placed on an eligibility list.

The use of the National Teachers' Examination usually follows a pattern of procedure in many larger school systems. Criteria for selection are set up which include the candidates' scholastic record, health record, experience if any, demonstration teaching, personal record supplemented by the interview, and the results of the National Teachers' Examination. These are weighted heavily in favor of the latter, although exceptions may be made where any one factor as personality is outstanding, or where the supply is insufficient. Occasionally, school systems use their own examination procedures in testing for both common and specialized information.

Evaluation of the Examination

Criticism of the National Teachers' Examination generally follows the pattern of criticism of other examinations used for selection.²⁴ They tend toward too great uniformity, do not take into con-

²⁴ Walter A. Anderson, "The National Examination—A Criticism," *Childhood Education*, December, 1941, pp. 179-181; Ben D. Wood, "National Teachers' Ex-

sideration variation in the preparation received by the candidate in teacher education institutions established as they are throughout the nation, and do not take into consideration differences in certification requirements in the several states. The results may be heavily weighted in favor of the examination scores, disregarding wholly or partially local teacher employment standards and conditions. Many teachers have expressed concern over their continued use, because of the encouragement of undue uniformity in teacher education, curricula, and fear of arbitrary use. Some teachers may not be temperamentally adaptable to preselective judgment by this means. Too often the results are overemphasized, especially if given under conditions unfavorable to the candidate.

Despite the criticisms which have been made against the written examination in teacher selection, the fact remains that other professions have retained it in various forms as an essential factor in selection. If anything, greater emphasis is now given to civil service examinations for governmental and municipal selection. In our judgment, the written examination in some form will remain as a major factor in both teacher preparation and selection. Much will depend on when and where it is given. However, if used, care should be taken to adapt it properly to the occasion and administer it fairly. It should not be overemphasized. The strain and stress of a six- to eight-hour examination may be too severe for a teacher of fine artistic temperament. Here as always, good common sense applies.

Oral Interview

Professional writers in the field of teacher selection are generally agreed that the interview is one of the most important steps in teacher selection procedure. Here is a situation in which two or more persons can meet personally, exchange ideas, relate experiences, and bring about a mutual understanding. Characteristics not hitherto revealed may be manifested. The interviewer should be well trained for his task, experienced in personnel procedures and understanding of human nature. Among the personal and professional items studied at the interview are the following: personality, judgment, community understanding, temperament, sense of humor, poise, voice,

amination," *Childhood Education*, January, 1942, pp. 227-230. See also Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949, pp. 174-175.

dress, use of English, physical characteristics, professional attitudes, and the candidate's philosophy and preferences.²⁵ A written record is generally made of the interview upon forms provided for the purpose. The interview also obviously can assist the candidate in deciding to accept a position if tendered.

Classroom Observation

Wherever possible, some demonstration of teaching competence on the part of prospective teachers should be required. This can be accomplished through visitation to the teacher education institution or classroom of the teacher, if in service. Many school systems require the applicant to appear on a designated day and teach a selected class under the observation of two or more personnel officers or supervisors. This practice has merit if all emotional strain can be removed and reasonably normal conditions prevail. Some allowance should be made for the inexperienced teacher; the more experienced one should be expected to adapt himself to a new situation with greater ease and facility.

Preparation of Eligibility Lists

After all relevant facts have been assembled concerning each candidate, a decision must be reached as to recommendation for appointment. This decision may be easy or difficult to make in proportion to the number and record of candidates being considered. A profile of each candidate should be prepared upon which all data, as far as possible, should be quantified and reduced to a common basis for comparison. All other information should be arranged so that it is concise, usable, and readily available. Many school officials have developed a high degree of skill in recognizing the essential qualifications that make for success in teachers. Some however depend upon snap judgment (which they term intuition), which is not always a safe guide.

The combination of all ratings and accompanying data is the basis for establishing an eligibility list. The usual method of establishing such a list is the determination of weightings for each teacher, in which numerical values are given to education and experience, written examinations, personal characteristics, the oral interview, ratings

²⁵ Atkinson found a total of sixteen personal and nine professional items used in the oral interview (*op. cit.*, pp. 105, 107).

on teaching demonstration, and references. Added weightings may be advisable where an applicant possesses some outstanding trait or experience, such as a good singing voice, skill in some musical instrument, dramatic ability, camp experience, or a trait related to the position under consideration. Candidates are usually ranked, selection being made from the three highest. This enables a choice to be made, when for some peculiar reason not readily explainable, the highest applicant must be "by-passed," and selection made from the second or third on the list. It should be pointed out that general agreement does not prevail among educators as to the emphasis which should be given to the various factors included in the teacher's profile and final record. While the individual judgment may be desirable, personal preference may be difficult to rule out in the presence of objective data. The final task is to fit each teacher properly into the position for which he is an applicant.

DISCRIMINATORY PRACTICES

At this point it would seem pertinent to call attention to certain discriminatory practices which characterize some selection procedures. One of these is the willingness of some teachers to underbid another in order to secure a position. This implies willingness on the part of superintendents and boards of education to enter into such an arrangement without due regard to fitness of the candidate or because of some pressure. A second unfortunate situation is the practice of some board members to ignore their administrative officials, directly or indirectly, in the selective process, even with an approved selection procedure, encouraging applicants to seek positions through them individually. Many such incidents refer to preferences for relatives and friends. Mention has already been made of the married women teachers. Many of them are selected and retained because of declared need, pressure, or lower salaries. Occasionally, there are discriminatory practices which pertain to matters of politics, race, inbreeding, and undeserved placement and promotion. Even where selective policies have been adopted, they may be ignored in specific cases, which brings discredit to the whole selective process. Teacher selection should be a strictly professional function administered by the proper administrative official, within the framework of a workable policy previously adopted by the board, and strictly adhered to.

APPOINTMENT

Recommendation

The appointment of teachers is the legal responsibility of the board of education. Preferred practice suggests that the administrative officers recommend more than one applicant for a particular position to the board, evaluating the qualifications of each and offering their suggestions as to fitness. The board of education then selects the person or persons, in its judgment, best fitted for the specific position. Where the superintendent makes one specific recommendation, assuming his reasons are sound, the board should accept his choice.

A similar practice should prevail where teachers are selected for promotion. Many of the same principles of selection indicated above might well apply. One additional measure of efficiency should be emphasized, namely some test of competency such as merit rating or an outstanding record. It is presumed that these have been fairly and scientifically determined.

Teachers' Contracts

Upon selection, the teacher should be tendered a legal written contract, or given other evidence of appointment as the law prescribes. Most states have fixed regulations governing teachers' contracts, which in part govern the terms and conditions of employment. This will be discussed at greater length in a later chapter. In the absence of a written contract, oral contracts are valid, under certain conditions, in most states.

The terms and conditions of employment should be clear in the minds of all concerned at the time of appointment. These include term, salary, duties and responsibilities, certificate requirements, protective features, and termination. The teacher should be clear as to policies of the school, assignments, specific duties, supervisory personnel, merit rating if any, and other matters that may be peculiar to the school or the community. On his part, the teacher should be familiar with the state laws and regulations such as certification, probation, tenure, retirement, salary, and legal responsibilities. If loyalty oaths are required, they should be thoroughly understood and accepted without reservation. It is always well to enter upon a new position with a clear understanding by everyone.

The importance of full information prior to appointment has been

revealed in studies of teachers' suggestions.²⁶ Teachers feel that more information should be given them as to teaching assignments, textbooks and teaching materials, and housing and living conditions. Teachers desire to know more about their principals and their administrative relationships. A greater effort should be made to orient the teacher in his new position. More research is needed along these and other phases of the selective process.

APPRAISAL OF TEACHER SELECTION TECHNIQUES

So many factors have been emphasized in teacher selection that it is difficult to arrive at any sound conclusion as to their relative value. An attempt at an appraisal was made by McKlveen²⁷ through a study of those factors which pertain to procedures and policies in teaching selection. He found that school boards were giving over to superintendents more and more authority to recommend teachers. In turn these superintendents placed greatest reliability on the following in rank order: personal qualifications, professional interest and growth, professional record, good background, physical health, good character, and teaching ability. Devices used in teacher selection in rank order appear to be personal interview, teachers' examination results, observation of teaching, physical education, and oral examination to gain further knowledge of teaching ability. Application blanks and letters of recommendation are universally used, with declining emphasis on the latter. However, great reliability is placed on the recommendation of the educating institution.

Of considerable importance are the discriminatory practices prevalent in teacher selection. The local applicant has a greater advantage, especially if the school board influences the selection. Single women have slightly better chances of appointment than married women. The accepted age range is from twenty-one to forty-five years, with preferences under forty years, and with the advantage given to men teachers. Religion is a factor for local rather than general application. Nepotism is generally frowned upon. Woman teachers are judged more severely than men. In times of teacher

²⁶ National Education Association, "Teacher Personnel," *Review of Educational Research*, 1946, p. 231.

²⁷ Gilbert D. McKlveen, *Development of Administrative Factors Pertaining to Procedure and Policies in Teacher Selection*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1953.

shortage, wide discretion is given to the superintendent to secure teachers wherever available. There is wide variation on the part of school boards and even superintendents in applying better selective practices, both as to time and place.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What practices in teacher selection of a half century or more ago are observable in modern practice?
2. What are the arguments that selection is a professional function? To what extent are all of these valid?
3. What is the best source of prospective teachers?
4. To what extent is previous teaching experience essential in selecting teachers? To what positions?
5. Evaluate the arguments for and against the employment of married women as teachers. Compare the findings of studies relating to them.
6. To what extent should residence be a factor in teacher selection?
7. Are Reeder's recommendations in line with sound policy and procedure?
8. Divide the responsibilities for teacher selection among (a) board of education, (b) superintendent, (c) principals, (d) other teachers.
9. Draw up a statement of sound teacher selection policy for a given school district.
10. Prepare a position analysis for a selected elementary or secondary school of at least eight teachers. Try to evaluate fitness of those now employed in these positions in terms of your analysis.
11. Evaluate the qualifications of teachers as proposed in the chapter. Which of these may be (a) relatively easy? (b) difficult to apply?
12. To what extent can teacher selection procedures identify the creative artist teacher?
13. Rank the items of information requested of candidates from the greatest to the least important. Where would you place emphasis?
14. Evaluate the fairness of (a) demonstration teaching, (b) merit rating, (c) eligibility list in teacher selection.
15. From all of the selective procedures discussed in this chapter, how would you prepare a profile of a prospective teacher for presentation to a board of education?

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Teacher Orientation

THE program of the modern teacher education institution provides for many enriching experiences which enable the young teacher to enter upon his new teaching responsibilities with greater ease and fewer adjustments. These have been accomplished in large part by means of better professional preparation, especially through observation and practice teaching experiences. Entering upon his new position the new teacher, however, will still have to make new adjustments and establish new relationships. Here is a new situation involving many new problems and associations with which his previous education has not satisfactorily provided solutions. Too often the beginning teacher is compelled to resort to time-consuming, often disheartening, trial and error methods in meeting problems with which he has a professional right to expect some initial help. An effective plan of orientation as he enters upon his new position may spell the difference between his success and failure and assure initial confidence.

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the nature of teacher orientation, its organization, and the areas in which orientation should be made functional. The chapter closes with a discussion of the significance of the probationary period.

ORGANIZATION FOR ORIENTATION

Purposes

The term *orientation* literally means "turning toward the east." From this concept there has developed the necessity for establishing right relationships as one enters upon teaching. Large business and industrial organizations have found it highly profitable to the or-

ganization as well as the employee to assist new workers in making satisfactory adjustments as they enter upon their duties. Perhaps the greatest single outcome of desirable educational experiences on the part of boys and girls is the satisfying life adjustments they make under the school's direction. How necessary then is it for the young teacher to begin his professional life work with a proper perspective, satisfying adjustments, and a thorough understanding of the important tasks upon which he is about to enter.

It should be assumed that the new teacher brings to his new position a background of reasonable general and professional knowledge generously enriched with properly formed positive attitudes toward his profession. His world of idealism may have undergone modifications through his practice teaching experiences. At the same time he may have had conflicting emotional experiences. His attainments, whatever their nature, must now be "pinpointed" to a particular position, in which varying and seemingly incompatible conditions are likely to prevail. He is now in the world of reality, which may not, at first glance, be to his liking. His personal and professional development in his new position must not be left to chance; rather the experiences of all the teachers and the whole system ought to be made available to him, so that his professional success may be assured. There is no substitute for competent, happily adjusted personnel in a school system.

Nature of Responsibility

The orientation procedure is essentially an administrative function. The initiative resides in the superintendent who may assign actual direction to a staff officer as the assistant superintendent or the personnel director and/or supervisors. In smaller schools, a committee of principals may be appointed. Committees of principals, supervisors, and teachers have been effective in some instances. In the Portland Plan, several other persons and groups have been used successfully, including parent-teacher association representatives, outstanding citizens, board members, and community groups.¹ As each school system approaches the true community school ideal, the significance of these wider community contacts in the orientation of the new teacher is apparent.

¹ George W. Ebey, "How Portland [Oregon] Greets its New Teachers," *The Nations Schools*, December, 1948, pp. 28-30.

Preliminary Approach

Some preliminary planning is necessary before the time of orientation. Through a letter the new teacher is welcomed into the school system by the superintendent and urged to take an active part in its educational affairs. Accompanying this letter should be another from the teachers' association with a similar emphasis, perhaps more specific as to living conditions, nature of the community, and the activities of the association. If the teacher has already been assigned to a particular school, the principal may welcome the new teacher through a friendly letter. An attractive teacher's handbook will convey a good initial preparation. If it is desired to gather pertinent data concerning the teacher for the office files, a questionnaire might be sent to be returned on the first day. Many new teachers have gained first impressions through visits to the school system at the time of selection. Perhaps some are residents of the community. It should not be presumed that local persons are less in need of orientation; perhaps they are even more so, especially if they have erroneous conceptions or are oblivious to educational changes since they were in school.

Timing

All authorities are generally agreed that the period devoted to orientation should be held before the opening of the school year. Ordinarily, two or three days are devoted to the program. A week may not be too long, especially if combined with workshops for teachers, who may be engaged in curriculum development or other projects. Portland, referred to above, used a two week period, which some thought longer than necessary. Many problems must be met in planning. These include housing the teachers, daily lunches, provision, if any, for paying teachers before the opening of school, or any others who may take part in the program, vacation assignments, interruption of summer or other work programs, transportation, and the incidental costs of the program as traveling expenses, clerical help, and mimeographing.

ORIENTING THE NEW TEACHER TO THE SCHOOL

The first area of orientation for the new teacher is the school itself. The following are suggested as the basis of a program in this area.

1. *The school's philosophy*, and its relation to the curriculum, the instructional process, and the community.
2. *Organization of the school*, purposes of the elementary school, secondary school, and other divisions, lines of administrative authority, supervisors and directors, members of the board of education, and clerical and custodial staff.
3. *The program of the school*—courses of study, textbooks and supplementary materials of instruction, methods which may be essential to the program, audio-visual aids, plan books, extracurricular activities, community resources, library and library materials.
4. *The school accounting and evaluation techniques*—pupil accounting records, reports and report forms, the grading system, promotion standards.
5. *Rules and regulations*—printed or mimeographed rules of the board, administration, or the school, customs and practices which teachers are expected to observe, including an understanding of those things “which are just not done.”
6. *The physical plant*. This includes familiarity with the school buildings, school environment, relation of school to school, internal structure with respect to classrooms, library, auditorium, gymnasium, toilet rooms, wardrobe and locker facilities and responsibilities, location of storage rooms, requisition for supplies and equipment. The furniture and equipment should receive the attention of the new teacher: desks, blackboards, bulletin board, working conditions, relations to custodians, and storage space.
7. *General information*—school enrollment, school calendar, financial facts about the school, salaries and salary schedules, annual budget, debt service, economies practiced, per pupil costs, and teacher meetings. A well-planned directory should indicate the names, addresses, and assignments of all personnel.

Procedures

In presenting this information, much can be accomplished through talks by designated personnel best qualified to present the particular phase under consideration. Teachers' handbooks, directories, and special bulletins previously prepared will be essential. Planned tours of the buildings with competent guides help to orient the teacher. Much can be learned through conferences with the superintendent, supervisors, principals, and other teachers. Discussion groups are very effective.

ORIENTING THE NEW TEACHER TO HIS POSITION

The previous section has pointed out those elements essential in orienting the teacher to the school system as a whole. Specific attention should now be given to preparing the new teacher for his specific position. The following are offered as an essential part of this phase of the program.

1. *Assignment of pupils*—number of pupils enrolled, cumulative records, attendance record, pupil interests, problem children if any, class organization, home rooms, pupil activities.
2. *Grade and subjects to be taught*—location of room or rooms to be used, grade standards, courses of study, promotion standards, accumulation of materials, relations to other teachers where close cooperation may be necessary. Considerable time and attention should be given to evaluation procedures and the interpretation of test results.
3. *Specific duties*—specific methods to be followed or materials to be covered, due dates as report periods, teachers' meetings and assignments, committee assignments, corridor, playground, cafeteria, bus, or detention duties, school calendar, length of school day, time for reporting to or leaving school. Extraclassroom duties come within this classification including afterschool assignments or evening functions which the teacher may be expected to attend.
4. *Pupil control*. New teachers should be especially acquainted with what may be expected as to pupil management, including corporal punishment, detention, sending pupils to principal, recommended or forbidden methods of punishment, what help to expect of the principal or supervisor, and especially, the teachers' responsibilities as to pupil control beyond the classroom.
5. *Specific routines*. Every school system has many specific routines evolved through long experience which appear to "work," and must be followed. Perhaps these do not appear in the regulations, and may be peculiar to a school or a particular position. These include traditions and may even extend to taboos.

Procedures

Orientation along the lines indicated above is largely the responsibility of the building principals and the supervisors. Following the general meeting of new teachers, they may be taken in small

groups or individually to receive information specifically directed to the individual teacher. Many schools prefer an older teacher sponsor who is assigned to each new teacher and can explain materials, records, duties, and other routines suggested above. Perhaps here is the principal's chief opportunity to gain the confidence of the new teacher and start him out toward a successful career.

ORIENTING THE NEW TEACHER TO THE PEOPLE WITH WHOM HE WILL BE ASSOCIATED

Getting acquainted with his associates, pupils, school patrons, and the people of the community generally will be one of the most difficult problems faced by the new teacher. People differ in their ability to make friends. Some are socially minded who, with a pleasing personality, are naturally attracted to others; others are shy and retiring and find it difficult to make friends easily. Hence the first responsibility of the new teacher is to be friendly and sociable. Too often teachers complain that they are left alone, shunned by others, or not taken into this or that group. In many instances the fault lies with the teacher. He must be ready to meet others halfway and on a friendly level. The orientation procedure then should make provision for new teachers to get acquainted. The following are suggested:

1. *Fellow workers.* After a new teacher has been formally introduced, opportunity should be given to meet informally through teas, parties, or other social gatherings in which each new teacher is sponsored by a fellow teacher. Opportunities can be given through committees, workshop, or some extra curricular activity.
2. *The administrative group and the board of education.* Those in administrative leadership should assume some responsibility in meeting new teachers personally, learning names, and finding some opportunity to discuss their problems. In smaller school systems, members of the board of education should be included in these acquaintances. Principals and supervisors should establish early a feeling of confidence.
3. *The pupils.* Real acquaintances with pupils begins with familiarity with names and faces. The cumulative records contain many facts of human interest. Care should be taken that any unfortunate circumstance in the pupil's previous school history does not becloud the teacher's first impression. As soon as possible, there should be

visits to the homes to become acquainted with parents. Pupils, like adults, will respond to courteous and fair treatment.

The beginning teacher may need assistance in dealing with behavior problems within the class assigned to him. More difficult than establishing confidence and contact within his class is establishing confidence within the school. The beginning teacher is often "fair game" for the pranks and disrespect of "borderline" pupils. The youthful mischief and exuberance of some pupils, especially under some emotional stress such as an athletic contest, are often a serious worry to the new teacher. There is no substitute for the maintenance of control by and respect for the teacher in any well directed school system.

4. *Parents and community groups.* Social orientation within the community might well begin with the parents of the children of his particular class or school. Opportunities can be created through socials sponsored by the parent-teachers' association or home room mothers' group. Interested teachers will want to visit within the community, its homes, its recreation centers, and other associations where parents and community leaders congregate. The new teacher should find a welcome in the community's civic, social, and religious organizations in which he may be interested. There is a great advantage in the possession of a particular skill in social acceptance, such as in music, sports, social activities, or forensics. Care should be taken, however, not to associate without due investigation of the nature of the organization. A bad mistake may be difficult to overcome.

Procedures

Perhaps there is no better way to achieve social acceptance generally, whether in the school or community, than through the force of one's own personality and example. Sincerity and simple modesty are essentials of great importance. The initiative in these social relationships within the school lies with the administration as to official contacts, and with the teachers' association as to semi-official and social contacts. Teacher-sponsors should be assigned to all new teachers, which relationship may well lay the basis for a lasting friendship. The parent-teacher association should include new teachers in its social program, its committees, and in its program. Pupils can be taught that it is as much their responsibility to get acquainted with their teachers as it is for the teacher himself. Such initiative on the part of pupils should not be mistaken for "apple-polishing," which may create a spirit of jealousy among less favored pupils.

ORIENTING THE NEW TEACHER TO THE COMMUNITY

Assuming that the new teacher is a nonresident of the community, the teacher's first introduction to the community is in securing acceptable living quarters. This is perhaps the most important single aspect of teacher orientation. The teacher should be happy in his home life, with pleasant surroundings free from loneliness, and economic worries. Unmarried teachers should give consideration to: (1) location of a room or apartment within reasonable distance and in cultural surroundings; (2) the reputation of the home and the neighborhood; (3) his own roommates if previously unknown to him; and (4) his social acceptance in the home and the community and the comforts it affords.

The Married Teacher

The married teacher will, in all probability, have greater difficulty in finding suitable living quarters. He may find few suitable places for rent and may be forced to purchase a home at a price he can little afford. In such instances he may not be able to choose its location and surroundings as he would like. He may be forced to leave his family elsewhere while he secures a room. Here he may be torn between his love and concern for his family and his school work. Going home on Friday afternoon with a return on late Sunday evening and even early Monday morning deprives the teacher of worth-while community contacts over the weekend.

It should be the responsibility of the school authorities and the teachers' association, with the cooperation of the parent-teacher association, to provide suitable living quarters for the teachers. Some communities have provided teacherages (teacher residences) for both teachers and administrators. If this can be done legally, it may be a desirable movement. As teachers become more and more professionalized and become permanent citizens of the community, they will want to own their own homes and provide for their families in circumstances they can afford. Salaries should be commensurate. This should be accepted as a community's responsibility.

Knowledge of the Community

The obligation of the proper orientation of the teacher in the community is a two way process. On his part the newly appointed

teacher will want to study the community and its people. He will want to understand the community setting, historical background, the local government and officials, politics, and policies; provision for public health and sanitation, housing and working conditions of the people, their industrial relations; services for all the people such as recreation, parks, and playgrounds; cultural activities as fairs, theaters, music and dramatic activities; how the people mingle in their churches, fraternal organizations, business and labor organizations, and social groups; the care and protection of children, especially attitudes toward them, juvenile delinquencies; provision for less fortunate or aged, handicapped, indigent; the hospitals, clinics, settlements; and the religious institutions and associated agencies who may exert some influence. If there are private and parochial schools, colleges and universities, or any form of significant educational advantage, it should come within the scope of his community understanding. Above all, he should know the people, the leaders, the parents, and the children in whatever way they live together in the community. This is a large order for the beginning teacher but it is amazing what one can learn with an open observing mind.

The Community's Responsibility

Since the teacher is such an important factor in the education of approximately one-fifth of a community's population, it is obvious that the community itself has an obligation toward the new teacher which naturally applies to all teachers. Unfortunately, in many communities, there are traditional or stereotyped conceptions of the teacher. As a profession, teaching may not be said to have reached the professional status of law or of medicine, although it is fast approaching it. The community expects that its teachers will conform to the moral tone and mores of the community. Parents are justified in expecting the teachers of their children to be men and women of good education, but in realizing this expectation, parents should also understand the importance of assisting in their welfare. They should not expect of teachers that which they would be unwilling to expect of themselves as parents. Codes of "dos and don'ts" are not necessarily for one-group adaption. Social conditions change and if education is viewed as adjustment this principle must be recognized in the teaching profession.

Social Acceptance

Social acceptance of its teachers on the part of the community is of first importance, men teachers as well as women. This does not mean overindulgence to the point of boredom or extravagance, in which teachers may be compromised by engaging in certain questionable practices, nor does it mean limited social acceptance depending on the nature of the social or special interest group. It does mean that teachers are people. They have a right to live as human beings, to engage with other people in wholesome community living, to participate in the best that the community affords, to get to know the people as parents and citizens in their associations with each other, and to have the right to work together in building a better community for the welfare of all citizens, especially the boys and girls.

VARIATIONS AS TO SIZE OF SCHOOLS AND TYPE OF COMMUNITY

The size of the school system may be a factor to consider in orienting the teacher. The large city with its complex school system and organization may require a far different approach and program than a smaller school district. In smaller school districts it may not be difficult for the newly appointed teacher to come to know personally all other teachers in the system as well as administrative officials and the board of education. Since the one-teacher schools still serve about one and one-half million boys and girls, they must not be ignored as an educational institution, nor their teachers receive less attention than their urban fellows. Moreover, greater attention should be given to their orientation and social and economic adjustment because of greater turnover of teachers, lower salaries, and generally prevailing lowered social and economic conditions. The right of every boy and girl to an education which includes a happily adjusted teacher is a sacred duty of society and this includes boys and girls in all types of schools.

Types of communities are closely associated with the nature and size of the school system. Teachers known personally in a small town or city are lost in the masses of population of a large city. Similarly, teachers in a hamlet or open country are more likely to become an integral part of community living, and if they remain any length of time usually exercise considerable community influence.

THE PROBATIONARY PERIOD

Orientation of the newly appointed teacher should continue during the assigned probationary period. This period, usually determined by law or practice in the several states, consisting of from one to three years, may be a preliminary step to further certification and tenure status. The chief purposes of orientation during the probationary period are to develop in the teacher (1) confidence in himself and a sense of security; (2) practice in applying his skills and knowledges; and (3) demonstration of professional competence sufficient to justify tenure or at least further retention.

Procedures

During this period the following procedures may be helpful in this phase of orientation: (1) sympathetic supervision which shall include brief visits to discover needs and determine general fitness. Longer visits may be made as the teacher gains confidence and needs assistance in definite problems; (2) individual and group conferences in which specific weaknesses may be overcome and strengths developed; (3) observation of good teaching with subsequent discussion and self analysis designed to improve in service; (4) completion of necessary additional formal preparation as required by certification or other regulations; and (5) friendly and sympathetic encouragement on the part of associates designed to gain confidence and a feeling of security.

Specific Help

The beginning teacher should receive specific help along those lines in which it has been demonstrated that failure is most likely to occur. The following should receive special attention during the probationary period: (1) help in planning his work; (2) help in discovering and applying known as well as new procedures; (3) assistance in dealing with behavior problems within his class as well as within the school; (4) help in dealing with parents and associates; (5) help in learning how to evaluate his own performances; (6) correction of his own personality defects; (7) help in making adjustments with the community and in his own personal living; and (8) growth in professional knowledge and attitudes as school laws and

regulations, ethics, professional organizations, professional literature, and the significance of education as an American institution.

THE CADET TEACHER (INTERNSHIP)

A form of internship for teachers such as is common in medicine, has been proposed for education and has received considerable favor. In this, sometimes called the cadet plan, the teaching candidate, having received the basic preparation—usually the bachelor's degree—is not accepted as a full-fledged teacher until he undergoes an acceptable probationary period with close observation. The cadet teacher is assigned to a master teacher for a period of usually one year. During this period he should not be responsible directly for the teaching of any class or group of pupils; rather his assignments include assistance to groups of pupils, scoring papers, routine assignments, and observation. Gradually he takes on teaching assignments, at first under observation, and later during the master teacher's absence or as a substitute in other classes. Where periods of time longer than one year are required, the above routine can be extended. Close supervision is a prerequisite at all times. The cadet should receive pay up to one-half of the regular teacher's salary. Following the probationary period, the cadet teacher has a reasonable expectation of a regular teaching assignment upon a favorable recommendation.

The advantages of this plan are apparent. Beginning teachers have the advantage of careful supervision under master teachers. Causes of incipient failure may be discovered or removed. Employing officials may be assured of some measure of prognostic teaching success. It has the disadvantage of delaying entrance into full gainful employment and may discourage promising young men and women from entering teaching because of the lengthened period of training. This would not be so important a consideration if the supply of teachers were adequate and the rewards of teaching sufficiently attractive.

OTHER PROBLEMS IN ORIENTING THE TEACHER

Teaching Load

Too often, inexperienced teachers are given unfair consideration in teaching and cocurricular assignments. In many secondary schools, older teachers receive preferential treatment as to subjects, study halls,

rooms, and assigned duties. The same may hold for the assignment of activities, such as clubs, playground supervision, and lunch periods. In the elementary school the beginning teacher too often receives unfavorable treatment as to rooms, classes, and extra duties. Difficulties in adjusting the teaching assignments on the basis of such factors as experience, age, health and vitality, and interest are almost insuperable; in any case the senior teacher expects the advantage.

Certification Requirements

Administrative officials as well as beginning teachers should be familiar with all state regulations affecting certification of teachers. Anecdotal records may be required to form the basis of a rating report. Knowledge of additional courses may be necessary for certification. The certification of the teacher is essential in determining his placement or transfer. The certificate regulation may provide a suitable motion to improvement in service. Friendly conferences with suggestions offer the best means to this end.

Supervision

The supervisory organization and procedures should be given more than ordinary attention during the probationary period. Regular visitations to a new teacher should be scheduled and be sufficiently intensive to analyze strengths and weaknesses. The supervisor should establish confidence and provide a reasonable basis for teaching success. The supervisory program should be sufficiently comprehensive to include workshops, conferences, professional activities, anecdotal records, classroom planning, and building a sense of confidence and security. If the teacher proves a misfit, does not take suggestions kindly, and is not recommended for retention or tenure, the record should be clear as to the reasons, with the teacher fully and honestly informed. There is no place for evasion and half truths where good supervision prevails.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give your own conception as to the meaning of teacher's orientation. How would it differ as to (a) experienced and inexperienced teachers? (b) different types of employees?
2. What is the relationship of "teacher-position" as presented in previous chapters with practices in orientation of teachers?

3. Make a list of the problems faced by the new teacher of a particular school system upon entering a new position. What procedures would you set up to meet these problems? Should teachers be expected to be more self reliant in regard to these problems?
4. Evaluate the suggestions offered to orient the new teacher to the (a) school, (b) position, (c) community. Plan a program for a selected school system.
5. Compare the problems of teacher orientation in a city with a rural community. Be specific.
6. What are the significant problems of the probationary period?
7. Compare the values of a well-organized cadetship program with that of practice teaching. Do you have a better plan to suggest?

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Legal Aspects of the Teaching Profession

AS EDUCATION is a function of a state, the legal framework of education is to be found in state constitutions, statutes, common-law and court decisions, and other legal interpretations. While these pertain, for the most part, to the particular state in which the school system may be located, many legal principles and practices have universal application. State laws on particular aspects of teacher personnel may be similar in many states. As a thorough knowledge of the legal framework on the administration of staff personnel is so essential, the administrator should have a definite knowledge of these general principles and practices and their application, so that the school may be properly managed.

This chapter will present the legal aspects of the teaching personnel which have general significance in administration. In specific statutory or other coverage, the reader should refer to his own state. The topics presented are (1) the teacher as an employee, (2) qualifications and certification, (3) selection and appointment, (4) contractual status, (5) assignment, transfer, and reemployment, (6) duties, rights, and responsibilities, (7) salaries, (8) tenure, (9) leaves of absence, (10) resignation, removal, and dismissal, and (11) pensions and benefits.¹

¹ No attempt will be made in this chapter to document all references to principles and practices, especially those based on court decisions. These may be found in appropriate references, among which the following are suggested: *Corpus Juris*, vol. 56; Newton Edwards, *The Courts and the Public Schools*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1933; R. R. Hamilton and P. R. Mort, *The Law and Public Education*, Chicago, The Foundation Press, 1941; Madaline Kinter Remmlein, *School Law*, New York,

THE TEACHER IS AN EMPLOYEE

Definition of an Officer

The legal status of a teacher is that of an employee as distinguished from an officer. Superintendents of schools are officers; that is, they are appointed or elected for a term to fill a public office. This office is created by law to exercise such powers as may be delegated to it. A public office has five characteristics: (1) it must be created by the constitution, legislature, or municipality or other body through authority conferred by the legislature; (2) it must possess a delegation of a portion of the sovereign power of government, to be exercised for the benefit of the public; (3) the powers conferred and the duties to be discharged must be defined, directly or impliedly, by the legislature or through legislative authority; (4) the duties must be performed independently and without control of a superior power, other than law, unless they be those of an inferior or subordinate office, created or authorized by the legislature and by it placed under the general control of a superior office or body; and (5) it must have some permanency and continuity, and not be merely temporal or occasional.²

Definition of an Employee

Teachers do not come within this classification. They are employees and not officers. This principle has been substantiated by the courts and is generally accepted. The position of teacher is a creature of the legislature, and one so appointed is engaged to perform duties with respect to the public school system. No sovereign power is vested in or assigned to him; rather such duties may be conferred by statute or assigned by his employer (school board or its agent). The position of a teacher generally has a degree of permanency and continuity. Thus, the position continues without regard to turnover unless abolished in accordance with statute. Qualifications are determined and salaries fixed by law. The sole purpose in

McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950; Madaline Kinter Remmlein, *The Law of Local Public School Administration*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1953; H. R. Trusler, *Essentials of School Law*, Milwaukee, Bruce Publishing Company, 1927; *Year Books of School Law*.

² *State ex rel. v. Barney Hawkins*, 79 Mont. 506, 527 Pac. 411 (Montana 1927). See also Edwards, *op. cit.*, chap. 4.

providing teachers is to implement the legislative mandate in establishing and maintaining public schools.³

QUALIFICATIONS AND CERTIFICATION

Qualifications

A person to be employed as a teacher in the public schools must be eligible for such appointment through possession of the necessary qualifications, as required by statute, together with such additional qualifications as may be prescribed by local school authorities. The statutory qualifications are generally age, good moral character, good health, experience in some instances, completion of a prescribed course of study, and/or examinations. Such qualifications may be necessary in order to receive a certificate, or in order that a school district may be eligible to receive state appropriations. Additional qualifications which may be set up locally must not be inconsistent with state regulations. These must be reasonable and equally applied without prejudice.

Certification

The teacher's license is a certificate of qualification, that is, a token or evidence that he has met the legal qualifications. It is not a contract, nor does it confer an absolute right; rather it bestows upon him a personal privilege to be exercised under existing restrictions and responsibilities, and those which may subsequently be imposed. It is a license to follow a profession. While some measure of discretion may be exercised in its issuance, the certifying agency cannot refuse to issue it if the applicant has met all necessary stipulations. The possession of a certificate does not give the holder the right to demand a position; rather its possession is a prerequisite to entering into contractual status, since it is presumed that the teacher is competent to engage in teaching following the signing of the contract.⁴ A certificate may be revoked for cause by the issuing authority as provided by statute, such revocation being an annulment of the contract and employment. In administering certification, statutes

³ For a good discussion of the teacher as an employee, see National Education Association, Research Division, "The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, April, 1947, pp. 37-40.

⁴ See discussion of this point in Hamilton and Mort, *op. cit.*, pp. 327-328.

should be examined for these and other certification requirements such as renewal or extension, endorsement, and additional training.

SELECTION: APPOINTMENT OR ELECTION

In the selection and appointment of teachers, it is important to note specifically the provisions of the school law with reference to the manner thereof. If the responsibility for appointment resides in an officer of the board, it is termed "appointment," with corresponding authority to assign and transfer under certain conditions. Good administrative practice requires the superintendent to select and nominate, and the board to elect. An important principle is in operation here, as both the board and the superintendent exercise discretionary power in passing upon the fitness of the candidate. If an eligibility list is prepared as a basis for consideration, final selection should be made from that list, such as the highest on the list or from among the first three. Discretionary power should not be abused, as it weakens the selective structure and results in loss of confidence.

Certain procedures should be set up and administered for appointment, such as applications, examinations, and interviews. Elections should be made specifically as the law provides, as for example by "aye" and "nay" recorded vote of the board. While elections are usually made with reference to a particular position or grade level, discretion should be given to the administrative officer to assign and transfer within the legal framework and as need arises. Teachers, however, may not be "demoted" without their consent. Tenure must follow a probationary period with fitness adequately determined as provided by law.

Ordinarily, a teacher can assume re-election to a position at the end of a term of satisfactory service unless notice is given of termination of employment, and the contract provides otherwise. If the teacher fails to meet terms conditional to employment, such appointment or election may be revoked.

CONTRACTUAL STATUS

Nature of the Contract

Upon election or appointment, the teacher stands in a contractual relation, as he is an employee and possesses no inherent or sovereign

power as in the case of an officer. This means that he is entitled to a contract after his probationary period, which must be in accordance with statute. Where the statutory or other governing procedure does not specifically indicate either the form or the manner of the contract, it is a well-accepted principle that the authority to employ teachers implies the authority to contract. It is presumed that the contract is legal and binding, and mutually agreed to by both parties as competent. It must be certain and definite in its terms, free from fraud, error or illegality in any manner. Mere offer to employ is not a contract.

Contracts must be entered into by the board or officer having authority under the statute. In no sense can individual board members, acting individually, enter into a valid contract with a teacher, nor can any board member void or limit a contract once entered into by the board itself. Where the form of the contract is specified by statute, it must be used without deviation.

While most teachers' contracts are written, an oral contract is valid. However, an oral contract is not a substitute if a written contract is specified by law. Contracts to be valid should be signed, dated, witnessed, and in duplicate. The omission of mere formalities does not constitute, in itself, a denial of ratification of the contract, as mutual agreement is the governing factor. Once accepted, the contract becomes binding and its terms operative. Courts generally will not permit evasions, such as curtailment of the school term or decrease in salary without mutual assent.⁵

Supplementary contracts not inconsistent with the basic contract or with statutory law are found in common practice in some states, as in Pennsylvania. These usually pertain to extra duties, as coaching, for which the teacher receives additional compensation. These supplementary contracts may be discontinued without impairment of the basic contract.

Contract Forms

In thirty-two states, the state department of education has prepared contract forms, use of which is mandatory in sixteen states. In the other sixteen states, the form is recommended by the state

⁵ For an excellent discussion of the teacher's contractual status, see *Corpus Juris*, pp. 382-396. See also Remmlein, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

department, but local districts may use a different form if they prefer. Many such blanks are printed forms to be filled in. However, when filled in they must be consistent and the whole form valid. In some states, as in Pennsylvania, the teacher's contract is an integral part of the teachers' tenure law, becoming a continuing contract with specific provision for termination for cause.

Compensation

In general, the board has the authority to fix the salary to be paid the teacher for the term. However, such compensation shall be in accordance with the minimum salary prescribed by law, as well as increments to which the teacher is normally entitled. Teachers may not be demoted either in salary or position during the term of the contract without their consent. It is important to point out, however, that boards of education may abandon a position for statutory reasons, as at the end of a term, thus voiding a contract.

ASSIGNMENT, TRANSFER, AND RE-EMPLOYMENT

The assignment and transfer of teachers to particular positions is ordinarily construed to be a professional function within the discretion of the superintendent or board of education. Some confusion of assignment may arise where terms such as *primary*, *grammar*, or *secondary* are used. In the absence of statutory restrictions, it is held that discretionary power resides finally in the board to assign, re-assign, and transfer, provided it acts officially as a board, and that the certification or other status of the teacher is consistent therewith. However, the board must act in good faith. In no case shall re-assignment be made at a loss of salary or what may be construed as demotion. The contract itself may contain a provision as to the right of assignment or transfer to which the teacher has assented. Once assigned to a higher grade, it is assumed that such assignment constitutes a promotion from which the teacher may not be demoted without cause. In no case shall teachers be assigned to schools having unsanitary conditions, contagious diseases, or unsatisfactory working conditions which are likely in any way to interfere with acceptable performance according to his teaching contract and professional responsibilities.

The procedure for the re-employment of the teacher is to be found

either in the contract itself or in the provisions of the statute. Ordinarily, the contract expires upon its termination, that is, at the end of the term. Notices or other procedures should be fully complied with, so that there is no confusion as to intention. Oral contracts, as in the case of probationary teachers, may be binding for the period agreed to; however, such teachers are not entitled to a contractual status unless these procedures are carried out. On the other hand, probationary teachers must be given due notice of intention not to enter into contract in accordance with legal procedures. In Pennsylvania, for instance, such teachers must be given unsatisfactory ratings on a form provided for that purpose.

DUTIES, RIGHTS, AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Rules and Regulations

Boards of education are empowered under the law to make such reasonable rules and regulations for the administration of the schools in accordance with the statutes. A public-school teacher is bound to obey all such reasonable rules of the board which employs him, whether these rules were in operation at the time of employment or made at a later date. In fact, it is presumed that the teacher was fully cognizant of them at the time of signing the contract. Such rules may extend to classroom management, residence, extra duties, and even in some instances to restrictions in matters of personal privileges.

Perhaps the most significant study of restrictions on teachers through rules and regulations has been made by Beale.⁶ Such restrictions extend to smoking, use of intoxicating drinks, relations between the sexes, marriage, pregnancy and childbirth, social life, dress, organizational activities, and many others. Many of these restrictions are a part of the mores of the community and are even written into statute law. Teachers have an obligation to become conversant with regulations and restrictions as a condition of acceptance of employment. To flout a reasonable rule of the board or to hold in contempt the traditions and mores of a community does not contribute to the well-being of the public school as a constructive social institution, nor to the effectiveness of the teacher.

⁶ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, especially chap. 13, "Conduct of Teachers."

Authority

The maintenance of control (discipline) may be said to be the first responsibility of a principal in his school and a teacher in his classroom. Order is nature's first law and no less that of the school. Control may be defined as the act or power of directing with a view to securing order through the exercise of authority, restraint, suggestion, or regulation.⁷ In this respect, the teacher does not derive his authority from the board of education. He stands for the time being *in loco parentis* to his pupils, and, because of that relationship, he must necessarily exercise authority over them as a parent in many things concerning which the board may have remained silent.⁸ Pupils on their part have the obligation to obedience, good citizenship, respect for the rights of others, and fidelity to duty. The courts have repeatedly stressed that these obligations are inherent in any properly managed school system, and constitute, so to speak, the common law of the school.

In the exercise of his authority, it is presumed that the teacher has the right to discipline pupils and administer punishment when necessary within his jurisdiction⁹ and responsibility as a teacher. Such discipline must be reasonable and just, and in proportion to the nature and gravity of the offense and the size and age of the offender. The teacher must act in good faith without anger and malicious intent. Even where the teacher may have made an error in judgment, as in enforcing an unreasonable rule, if he acted honestly and in good faith he cannot be held liable. It is suggested, however, that corporal punishment should never be excessive, that it be reduced to a minimum, and that control be secured wherever possible with benign means.

Liability of Teachers in Tort

The principle is well established that school districts are not liable for the negligence of their officers or agents while acting in a governmental capacity in the absence of a statute expressly imposing such

⁷ William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, p. 251.

⁸ See *State v. Burton*, 45 Wis. 150, 30 Am. Rep. 706.

⁹ The jurisdiction of a teacher has been construed to extend over the pupil for the time he is away from home, including the time required in going to and from school.

liability. This is based on the theory that the state has sovereign power and cannot be sued without its consent. This theory applies generally to its agents who are its creatures, since they carry out the will of the state.¹⁰ Exceptions to this general principle are where the governmental agency exercises a private, proprietary, or corporate right with respect to their local or special interests, as a municipality. Some exceptions to this rule also apply in New York, California, and other states.¹¹

While the teacher may be protected from tort liability by means of this general principle as an agent of the state, full immunity does not extend to him as an employee. Everyone, regardless of his position, is liable in some measure for his own torts. It is assumed that the teacher will use reasonably sound judgment and common sense in his relations with his pupils. However, where willful negligence is involved, a criminal action can result and the teacher held liable, an example being in administering excessive punishment out of all reason to the nature of the offense.

Many of the actions in tort against teachers have arisen out of injuries suffered through activities of various sorts, as manual training, laboratory assignments, physical training, and athletics. Here reasonable supervision is required, and failure to furnish it at the proper time may result in liability. One should ascertain if reasonable care has been exercised in providing safeguards and restrictions, and proper instructions have been obeyed. Willful and wanton negligence go far beyond the scope of ordinary negligence. The final determination as to whether willful negligence is involved is by jury. The best summation of the whole matter is to suggest that teachers exercise extreme care at all times where pupil injury may occur. It should be remembered that pupils' youth and inexperience increase the precaution necessary on the part of the teacher to avoid an unreasonable risk.

Privileges and Immunities

Teachers enjoy reasonable protection in the performance of their duties as teachers. It is held that their contract implies, in part,

¹⁰ For a further discussion of this principle, see Hamilton and Mort, *op. cit.*, chap. 8. This chapter is carefully documented by case and other citations. See also Remmlein, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 267-271.

reasonable protection and that they cannot be dismissed without remedy. Any illegal impairment of the contract furnishes the teacher with a cause for action. Even with causes for dismissal as provided by law, teachers are entitled to notices, hearings, admission of evidence, proper defense, and the right of appeal. It may be necessary for a jury or other legally constituted body to decide questions of law and fact, that is, whether rules or contract have been violated.¹²

Taxpayers or patrons enjoy the privilege of restraining illegal appointment or employment or discharge of employees by means of injunction. This might pertain to lack of legal certification, or to one employed without the necessary qualifications.

While protected by statute and regulations, it should be emphasized that the teacher enjoys a unique position in the community. He is engaged in a great state enterprise in which the youth of the state is an integral part. It is his duty to conduct himself in such a manner as to command the respect and good will of the community. It is his right to be fully protected in fulfilling his function as a teacher. Conduct detrimental to this high trust tends to destroy his usefulness and that of other teachers by implication. Thus, this usefulness may be impaired by unnecessary, senseless restrictions outside his control which have no relation to his efficiency, or it may be impaired by his own acts. While the mores of a community may be a fairly safe guide, common sense and good judgment should be used at all times.

Rights and Duties as Teachers

Teachers have certain rights (enforceable claims) because they are teachers, such as right to absence with pay during illness, and right to compensation if injured in the performance of duty. Teachers have privileges, defined as a liberty to act professionally as one sees fit, without any duty to obey the command of another or to act in any specific manner excepting within the framework of their own profession. These may be illustrated as the privileges associated with their profession, or to claim exemption from jury duty. Immunities to teachers as teachers may extend to immunity from garnishment of salary or from abuse and insult by patrons. A duty is an act or restraint commanded by another and with a penalty provided.

¹² See *Corpus Juris*, pp. 408-415, for a good discussion of the rights and remedies of the aggrieved teacher.

Teachers have duties fixed by law, or by rules and regulations of the board. For example, teachers have clear-cut duties in regard to records and reports, the curriculum, and in-service training. While there is generally a common understanding of teachers' rights, privileges, immunities, and duties, there are exceptions and different interpretations in some states. These should be studied for local application.

Collective Bargaining

The right of employees to engage in union activities is a well settled principle. As teachers are employees and not officers, the same right would appear to be vested in them because of this status. Since the term "collective bargaining" has been associated with union activities, the question arises, does the same privilege extend to teachers through group activities. We must bear in mind that collective bargaining for teachers may be carried on in other ways, as in teachers' associations or committees; hence, the concern is the process or principle of collective bargaining.

Distinction should first be made as to collective bargaining between private employers and their employees, which is allowable under the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act, but does not extend to public employees. While public employers may do so voluntarily, it must be remembered that statutory provisions fix certain responsibilities and courses of action on school boards. They may not abrogate their authority by agreements not in accord with law.

The right to strike guaranteed to private employees does not extend to public employees, either morally or legally, as it manifests nothing less than an intent on their part to prevent or obstruct the operation of government until their demands are satisfied.¹³ Moreover, the right of public employees to strike is prohibited in some states, and is written into some contracts. In fact, agreement by collective bargainings may tend to nullify provisions and intent of the statute and raise serious questions as to its legality.

Final interpretation as to these matters will need to be made by statutory legislation or the courts. In the meantime, discretion may

¹³ See quotation from President Roosevelt in "The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher," *op. cit.*, p. 41. See also substantiating opinions, *ibid.*

be vested in a board of education to enter into agreement with teachers, in which there is no legal barrier, that does not impair contracts, and carries no threats or penalties. Such agreements should be entered into harmoniously and have as their primary purpose the improvement of the public schools in general and benefits to teachers in particular.

SALARIES AND OTHER FORMS OF COMPENSATION

Salary Guarantees

The salary which a teacher receives is a necessary part of his contractual status. Such salary is generally in accord with a salary schedule, which is a matter for state statute or local regulation. In half of the states, minimum salary standards are mandated, usually related to levels of preparation, experience, or state appropriation. Many states prohibit discriminations among teachers as to salary on account of sex, marital status, race, or other factors.

As a general rule, teachers are entitled to the compensation agreed to at the time of appointment, upon the performance of his services, in substantial compliance with the terms of his contract of employment, and the requirements of the law, rules, and regulations of the board. If the teacher is prevented from teaching by acts beyond his control, but holds himself in readiness to teach, he is entitled to compensation.¹⁴

At the same time, the teacher must perform his part of the contract with due care to its provisions and professional aptitude.

Conditions

There are certain conditions, however, where a teacher's contract may be voided and compensation withheld. These would apply where the teacher has not kept his register, records, and reports in prescribed form, his certificate is not in proper form, if it is necessary to close a school because of an act of God, reduced enrollments, or other conditions which may be prescribed by law.¹⁵ Increases and reductions in salaries may be subject to statutory conditions and restrictions, excepting during the term for which the teacher is appointed. Teachers may change classifications, positions, or grades

¹⁴ *Corpus Juris*, pp. 416-417.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 420.

within the terms of their contract by mutual consent. Where there is doubt as to the legal status of the existing contract, it is advisable to draw up a new and acceptable contract.

Teachers' contracts and salary payments are subject to due observance of regular holidays, vacations, and teachers' institutes, without prejudice on account of loss of salary. Teachers must keep school for the full number of days prescribed by law or the board regulations. Boards may grant teachers leaves of absence without loss of pay in accordance with discretion if within the statute. These may extend to illness, study purposes, exchange, or for professional reasons.

Teachers are entitled to receive their pay promptly. It is assumed that when a contract is consummated on the part of the board, the money has been provided and the manner of payment determined. Teachers may make demand for payment of a claim, order, or amount for his compensation, which, if refused, can result in an action in *assumpsit*.¹⁶ Boards of education may deduct from the teacher's salary such claims as may be due legally or agreed to by him, as income or other taxes, social security, hospitalization, or retirement. Teachers may be retired according to law or regulation which automatically voids the contract and subsequent payments.

TENURE AND OTHER FORMS OF POSITION STATUS

Ordinarily, teachers on contractual status are employed for a specified term. In no sense has the teacher contractual status beyond the term, unless the terms of the contract so state. Due to unfair practices of some boards, it has been deemed wise to protect the teacher in his profession through some form of a continuing contract status. This may be either an automatically renewed annual contract or true tenure status, giving the teacher permanent status with dismissal (abrogation of contract) only for specific cause and procedure. In either case, status is provided by statute.

Practically all tenure laws require the newly appointed teacher to prove competency through a probationary period before acquiring tenure status. This period may be for one to five years, usually two or three years. During this period there may be an annual contract or no contract, with dismissal upon notice either during or at the end of the probationary period if competency has not been demon-

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, for remedies, pp. 426-430.

strated. Ordinarily, it is not necessary to state a reason or conduct a hearing before dismissing a probationary teacher.

Following the probationary period, tenure status is determined upon recommendation of the superintendent and election by the school board. Tenure having been acquired, teachers are entitled to full contractual status with dismissal only for causes specified and certain procedures followed. Tenure laws protect teachers from unfair promotion and reduction in salary. However, teachers are subject to the terms of the contract, laws of the state, and rules and regulations of the board.¹⁷

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

The nature and procedures relating to leaves of absence for teachers from an administration approach have been presented in a previous chapter. Our concern at this point is with their legal bases. About half of the states have laws permitting or requiring local school boards to grant leaves of absence for illness, professional study, and other reasons. Local school boards generally have rules and regulations in regard to leaves of absence with a wide measure of discretion in granting them.

Issues and Discretion

The major legal issues in administering leaves of absence according to Remmlein¹⁸ are: (1) May an eligible teacher demand a leave of absence, or is granting the leave within the discretion of the local board? (2) At the end of the leave of absence, duly granted, may a teacher demand reinstatement without loss of salary, tenure, or retirement rights? (3) May a board require a teacher to take a leave of absence which the teacher has not requested? In general, it may be said that sick leave may be demanded as a right on the part of the teacher, while a board may compel such leave if the disability may interfere with the teacher's efficiency. Professional leave is a privilege and is within the discretion of the board, unless statutory provision is made. Leaves of absence ordinarily do not disturb tenure or retirement rights. It is expected that the teacher will return to service following leave, unless released. Salary and retirement status are not affected, but adjustments are made by agreement or policy. Full

¹⁷ Teacher tenure and dismissal will be fully treated in a later chapter.

¹⁸ Remmlein, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

discretion is given to the board to grant leaves for other specified reasons.

RESIGNATION, REMOVAL, AND DISMISSAL

Nature

Removal in school law implies some dereliction of duty, while dismissal means termination of employment for cause. Resignation is a voluntary act on the part of the teacher, although a request to resign on the ground that the teacher's services are no longer required may be equivalent to removal.

Removal and dismissal are determined by statute and by rules and regulations of the board which must be legally consistent. Without express authority, they may be implied from the express power to employ. A teacher then is held bound for all statutory provisions as well as rules and regulations, and by the terms of the contract which may pertain thereto. The power to remove or dismiss is vested in the board of education or employing authorities if so vested, with right of appeal. As such it is an executive function, although it may partake of a judicial character, depending on the consideration of facts in the case. All legal procedures must be complied with including sufficiency of cause and hearing, with final deposition in good faith and based on consideration of the merits of the issues involved.

Relation to Contract and Status

A teacher's contract of employment may be terminated by resignation, or abandonment of contract. To be effective, a resignation must be offered by the teacher to the board or other official, and must be accepted by the proper authority. Resignation must be in accord with statutes where they exist; they may be withdrawn at any time before action is taken. An accepted resignation supersedes an attempt at withdrawal. Resignations must be made in good faith with no evidence of duress or fraud. Boards may refuse to accept a resignation in which case the resignation is no longer binding, having already been acted upon. Failure of a teacher to return following a leave of absence operates to create a vacancy, depriving the teacher of the subsequent right to return. Unless there are extenuating circumstances, it is presumed that the teacher has not acted in good

faith, and has thereby jeopardized his status. Failure of a teacher to finish his term of contract or report for duty, or otherwise absenting himself, constitutes an abandonment of position and will be considered as such, unless it can be shown that there are circumstances beyond the control of the teacher.

PENSIONS, RETIREMENT, AND OTHER BENEFITS

Definitions

Laws for the retirement of public school teachers are in operation in all states and in addition, in about fifty cities and counties on a local basis. These laws concern two types of payment: (1) pensions and (2) retirement. A pension is a benefit to which the beneficiary does not contribute; it is usually paid from the general funds of the state government or by the local school system. A retirement allowance is a benefit to which both the teacher and the employer have contributed, and is referred to as a joint-contributing retirement system.¹⁹ In law, pensions are held to be gratuities which may be diminished at the will of the grantor, and to which the beneficiary has no legal right. Benefits established by joint-contributing retirement laws are generally considered as vested rights to which contributing members are entitled. However, they may be subject to modification by the legislature. It is important to point out that many court decisions concerning pensions and retirements pertain to other classes of public employees as well as teachers.

Relation to Contract and Tenure

Retirement plans are closely related to contracts and tenure provisions, and contain provisions for disability benefits, a good example being in Pennsylvania.²⁰

If a tenure law contains an age limitation, it is expected that the teacher will retire accordingly. This applies also to disability. Since retirement funds are built partly from deductions from salaries, the salary level at the time will determine the amount of the deduction and ultimately the amount of the allowance. Most retirement laws

¹⁹ The reader will find a discussion of court interpretations on pensions and retirement in National Education Association, Research Division, "The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, April, 1947, pp. 47-50, with many references cited. See also Remmlein, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

²⁰ See *School Laws of Pennsylvania* (1949), Article XXII.

provide for voluntary membership on the part of teachers employed at the time of enactment. By signifying their assent to join the retirement plan, teachers thereby enter into a contractual relationship which cannot be impaired. Retirement systems provide for death benefits in many instances, payable in options, as full amount or retirement allowance to spouse. Members may resign from the system under certain conditions as when they leave the profession, and receive the amount contributed by them. Similarly, they may be reinstated according to a schedule of back payments.

Issues

Many issues have been interpreted by the courts in relation to teacher retirement. Some of these are (1) constitutionality of statutes, (2) powers of retirement board, (3) what constitutes retirement, (4) continuity of service, (5) payment of assessments, (6) and actions to recover pensions and retirement allowances.²¹

Compensation for Injury in Line of Duty

In addition to specific legislation regarding sick leave for teachers, most states have some means of compensating teachers for disability caused by injuries received in the performance of duty. Workmen's Compensation Acts impose upon employers the duty of insuring against claims for compensation by employees injured in the line of duty. Claims filed under these acts cover medical, surgical and hospital aid, and benefits constituting a per cent of salary during the temporary or permanent disability. Death benefits are also included. It is important to note that there is considerable variation among states as to the availability of benefits and the nature of coverage, such as the hazardous nature of the teacher's work, such as shop teachers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare in parallel columns the legal status of officers and employees.
2. Examine the school code of your state and list the sections pertaining to the teacher. Note any inconsistency with any sections of this chapter.
3. Study the forms of the teacher's contract as found in your state (or

²¹ These are fully discussed in *Corpus Juris*, pp. 431-435.

any state). What are its provisions? Does it meet the five elements of a contract?

4. What is the contractual status of extra pay for extra service in your state? Take a position on this controversial subject.
5. How is the concept of *in loco parentis* related to changing social conditions? Illustrate. To what extent is school control (discipline) as ordinarily conceived (a) a social problem? (b) a legal problem?
6. Take a position on an annual contract for all teachers involving full twelve months' service. Will such a contract affect the teacher's legal status? How?
7. Is teacher tenure after probation entirely justifiable? What is the typical board member's attitude?
8. Should demonstrated competency be more closely related to tenure? How?
9. Should teachers unionize? Engage in collective bargaining? Strike? What is the best way to settle teachers' problems?

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Administrative Adjustments Concerning the Teacher in His Position

THE administration of a school staff includes many adjustments which must be made in order to bring about a smooth working school organization. These are both administrative and supervisory in nature and characterize, in the main, all school systems, regardless of size and location. Some of those adjustments are governed by statute or state regulation, while others may be peculiar to a particular school community and controlled by local regulation or administrative practice.

In the last analysis, the administrator should always keep in mind that the function of good school administration is so to minister to the needs of the staff that the quality of the teaching and learning processes may thereby be improved. Best practice suggests that the school administrator has a wide knowledge of the nature of desirable administrative adjustments and how best to administer them.

In chapter 8, the orientation of the teacher has been discussed. It is assumed that he is now reasonably well briefed in his assignment. As he teaches, many situations arise which require adjustment and necessitate the need for a policy which can be applied as the occasion arises. Many adjustments can be made in accordance with good practice; others require decisions in accordance with given situations. The following are discussed in this chapter: (1) adjustment to position, (2) the teaching load, (3) class size, (4) scheduling, (5) communication, and (6) working conditions. The emphasis in this chapter is upon adjustments relating to the teacher in his position.

ADJUSTMENT TO POSITION

One of the difficult problems in the administration of teacher personnel following orientation is to adjust each teacher to each task assigned, and all the teachers to all tasks assigned, so that the greatest degree of efficiency results in a smooth-working school organization. This requires continuous attention and the use of proper means so that each teacher can be studied as to his abilities, interests and aptitudes, and fitted properly into the system.

Types of Positions

The teacher comes to the school system with two types of preparation. First there is that preparation of a more general nature, characteristic of all teachers; second, there is that more specialized preparation fitting the teacher for his specific teaching responsibilities and attested by his certification status. This phase of his education is technical in nature and is directly associated with specific knowledges, skills, and interests.

The public schools are organized on two main levels, elementary and secondary. On the elementary level there is, in addition, the preschool division, composed of the nursery school and kindergarten, and in some schools, a preprimary group. The elementary school, composed of grades one through six, is generally thought of as primary (1-3) and intermediate (4-6). This is becoming more and more the typical form of organization. There are many elementary schools organized as grades one through eight (occasionally 1-7). The secondary schools, composed of grades seven through twelve, are divided into the junior high school (7-9) and senior high school (10-12). The four-year secondary school, still characteristic of many parts of America, is composed of grades nine through twelve. The junior college, composed of one or two years beyond the secondary school, is growing rapidly in many states in enrollment and significance. To many the junior college is an extension of the secondary school.

In both elementary and secondary schools there are different types of teachers and positions, such as teachers of academic subjects, special subjects supervisors, librarians, and teachers with special duties of many varieties. All of these affect the type of position and require adjustment to it.

The school organization is affected by many other factors which in turn influence the nature of the positions. A school organization (6-3-3) in an urban area differs in many ways from the organization in a rural area, such as a consolidated school, and affects the nature of the positions. There are factors of climate, transportation, occupations, social and economic conditions, religion, and leadership. These must be taken into consideration as they affect personnel administration. Teachers may be assigned varying combinations of responsibilities, so that in reality the positions of no two teachers are exactly alike.

Position Analysis and Description

Students of personnel administration have long been familiar with occupational descriptions resulting from job analyses and used in business, industry, and in government. This descriptive analysis is a condensed picture of each occupation in terms of those factors which affect the worker. Its purpose is to outline the duties of an occupation in relation to the kind of person needed to perform those duties effectively. It is also used to acquaint the new employee with the nature of the work to which he is assigned. Positions are classified and numbered, with salary and other information attached. Positions may be reclassified from time to time and new duties assigned as changes are effected in the organization.

Greater attention should be given to position analysis and description in personnel administration. In every elementary and secondary school there should be a better understanding of the total educational responsibilities of the system, with each position definitely structured. The selection and adjustment of the teacher to each position then can be approached more objectively. Positions of a more specialized nature, such as the jobs of counselors, librarians, and attendance workers, with part or no teaching duties, require a similar approach.

TEACHING LOAD

Three groups of responsibilities generally characterize each teaching position, namely: (1) teaching (classroom instruction), (2) service including activities, and (3) school-community. The teaching load includes (1) schedule of teaching responsibilities for the group or groups of pupils assigned for instruction, and (2) instruc-

tional activities immediately associated with classroom teaching, as tests, examinations, preparations, assignments, reports, marking papers, notebooks, lesson plans, laboratories, textbooks and supplies, and requisitions.

While many writers include the teaching load as a part of the service load, a distinction should be made concerning those many duties which teachers perform which are not directly related to classroom teaching. These include homeroom activities, assembly programs, cocurricular responsibilities, faculty meetings, workshops, committee work, cafeteria, hall and playground duties, exhibits, and athletics. A third group of activities now receiving greater attention include those responsibilities associated with the school-community. Significant among these are home visitation, the parent-teacher association, participation in community organizations having some school relationship in its program, religious education instruction, state and local educational associations, evaluation of other school systems, and community recreational programs. It is important that each teacher, at the outset, should be fully apprised of the total responsibilities pertaining to the position, which he fully accepts without reservations.

Measuring Teaching Load

Many attempts have been made to arrive at some satisfactory formula which would determine with some degree of objectivity, a reasonable load for each teacher. Assignments are made in terms of pupil-teacher ratio, total number of pupils per teacher per day or week, standard workday or week, a measure of variation (difficulty) by subject or grade taught including salary differential, extra pay for extra service, and assignments to teachers in accordance with variations in experience, age and aptitude. None of these have been wholly satisfactory. Myers isolated thirty-six factors pertaining to teacher load as found in the literature, and from these suggested eight factors as basic in setting up a formula: (1) number of class periods, (2) duplicate assignments, (3) number of preparations, (4) number of pupils, (5) cooperations, (6) length of period, (7) subject weights, and (8) standard teaching load.¹

Many studies have been made of specific analyses of teacher load

¹ L. L. Myers, "Needed, an Objective Method of Determining Teacher Load," *Nation's Schools*, April, 1943.

to measure significance of various factors in time expenditure of teachers. The following² have shown some significance: (1) size of school, (2) length of school day, (3) certain difficulties between men and women teachers, (4) subjects taught, (5) place in year of subject, (6) size of class, (7) number of pupil recitations, (8) concurrent class sections, (9) experience of teacher, (10) mode of presentation, (11) noninstructional responsibilities, (12) teaching efficiency, and (13) the teacher himself. As to the individual teacher it is well known that there is great variation among teachers in doing the same or similar things.

A recent study shows that the typical secondary school teacher spends an average work arrangement of 47 hours and 58 minutes as follows: 48 per cent of hours time in class instruction, 27 per cent in out-of-class instructional duties, and 25 per cent in all other activities.³

Douglass Formula

The most widely used formula applicable at the secondary level in order to determine an adequate measure of teaching load is that developed by Douglass. This formula takes into consideration: (1) units of teaching load per week, (2) subject-matter coefficients (ratios established for various subjects), (3) class periods per week, (4) number of pupils per week, (5) number of class periods in cooperations (other activities), and (6) gross length in minutes of class periods. While extensively used and considered adequate as a rough measure, it naturally does not take into consideration other factors previously mentioned. The 1950 revision of the Douglass formula does attempt to take into consideration other factors and apply them.⁴

Many additional formulas have been developed for use in measuring teaching load. These have been well summarized by the National Education Association. Mention should be made of the plan

² Leonard V. Koos, James H. Hughes, P. W. Hutson, and William C. Reavis, *Administering the Secondary School*, New York, American Book Company, 1940, pp. 396-405.

³ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teaching Load in 1950," *Research Bulletin*, February, 1951.

⁴ Harl R. Douglass, "The 1950 Revision of the Douglass High School Teaching Load Formula," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, May, 1951, pp. 13-24; *ibid.*, October, 1952, pp. 66-68.

developed in Detroit to assign point values to each class and activity based on a standard load of 115-120 points. Such a plan has considerable merit if values can be determined with a reasonable degree of objectivity. Considerable time is required to apply these formulas. Practice must be adequately evaluated. Effort must be made to harmonize diverging points of view of administration and teachers.⁵

Elementary Schools

In the elementary schools the time honored practice has been to assign each teacher to a class of pupils geared to the maximum number of seats in the room. Efforts have been made to limit this number to not more than forty, more likely thirty-five. Usually there is a grade to a room, although in rural schools as many as six to eight grades may be assigned. Load is more often measured in hours per day.

Upper grades and special rooms have been considered heavier assignments and may be given lowered enrollments. The elementary teacher generally has more clock hours actual teaching per week than junior and senior high school teachers, with fewer noninstructional activities. A recent study shows that, out of a work week of 47 hours and 50 minutes, the typical elementary school teacher spends 59 per cent of his time in class instruction, 25 per cent in out-of-class instructional duties, and 16 per cent in all other activities associated with his position.⁶

Equalizing Teacher Load

It is obvious that the work of the teacher has been made heavier in recent years because of additional responsibilities and heavier enrollments. The problem of balancing the teacher load needs careful study. To approach the problem by reducing the services to children is hardly the answer. A second and more logical approach is to equalize the existing educational program as fairly as possible in terms of adequate measures of value assigned to all responsibilities with slight variations due to such factors as experience, age, size of class, etc. Reducing the size of class by even one pupil in

⁵ *Op. cit.*, pp. 40-46.

⁶ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teaching Load in 1950," *Research Bulletin*, February, 1951, p. 17. See also *Review of Educational Research*, "Teacher Personnel," June, 1943, June, 1946, June, 1949.

large cities will require more teachers with additional expenditures.

An important approach to the problem is to consider the teachers' suggestions to improve teaching load. They suggest: 1. Secure additional personnel, especially for special instructional and routine duties. 2. Improve school management as discipline, materials, better planning, more democratic attitude, better grouping, fewer interruptions. 3. Improve scheduling. 4. Provide fair and equal treatment to all teachers, including a free period, rest rooms, assigning teachers according to greatest experience. 5. Improve school plant and facilities. Many of these problems must be approached professionally through study and research.

Each school can well begin through a cooperative study of its own schedule and activities. These studies can be made locally and in cooperation with state and national groups. It is doubtful if the problems of the small school can be adequately met without some form of school consolidation. Thus, determination of optimum size of building or school unit under capable leadership becomes a significant factor in the solution of many of these problems. While central policies may be necessary, each school should determine in its own specific manner the equalization of the burden of responsibility for all of its activities.

CLASS SIZE

Problems

Since group instruction is now characteristic of the learning process, the size of the group or class has become one of the most controversial issues in teaching over many years. The central problems of class size relate to the effects upon administration and teaching efficiency, pupil achievement, and teacher health and morale. Controlled experiments covering more than five decades have revealed no clear objective evidence that size of class is of major consideration in regard to educational efficiency. Efforts have been made to relate such factors as promotion rates, pupil withdrawals, pupil conduct, class management, pupil attitudes, relation to subject or grade taught, ability tests, effects on teachers' knowledge of pupils, and instructional techniques. While practice has tended to reduce the size of classes sharply, decision to do so has been made largely on opinions of teachers and administrators.

Factors

There are many factors which must be identified as the problem of class size is approached. Increasing enrollments tend to increase class size. Classes in required subjects tend to be larger than in elective subjects. Classes in music, health and physical education are generally larger. Classes in urban districts are generally larger in size than those of rural districts and small towns. Classes in private schools tend to be smaller than in public schools. Scarcity of teachers tends to increase class size. The size of class is directly affected by the amount of available support. In large cities for instance, the decrease of average class size by one or two pupils may entail heavy additional expenditures.

In summary, the determining factors in class size appear to be enrollment, available support, teacher opinion, and research evidence, in that order. Where it has not been possible to reduce class size to any degree of acceptability to teachers, many adaptations have been attempted with some degree of success. Among these are directed study, guided reading requiring library cooperation, pupil assistance, pupil self-checking, clerical assistance, and use of practice or cadet teachers. Armstrong⁷ proposed a plan for adjusting class size in the elementary school according to the characteristics of the children taught. Assuming a standard class size of forty pupils, he proposed reduction for this standard on the basis of four major factors: enrollment, intelligence, transiency, and reading difficulty. Main factors also suggested are retardation in arithmetic, overage-ness and problem cases. Whatever is done, individual pupil growth and development should be the major consideration.

Associated Problems

In discussing class size, one must not lose sight of the fact that the problem of the small class is also significant. Classes should be large enough that group interests can be maintained, that pupil competition is not lost sight of, and that teacher interest is not lost. Too small classes are costly and wasteful of facilities and can only be justified because of schedule difficulties, teacher adaptations, and pupil needs (as for college entrance). Children can be regrouped on

⁷ Hubert C. Armstrong, *Report of a Proposed Plan for Establishing Average Class Size in Elementary Schools*, Oakland, Oakland Public Schools, 1943.

the elementary level. Subject grouping can be made on the secondary level with subjects offered in alternate years. Supervised correspondence study as a means of extending the secondary educational program has proved effective in states where small high schools prevail because of lack of good roads, thinly populated areas, and financial limitation. Perhaps the solution of the problem of class size will depend largely on the development of efficient pupil learning techniques based on a greater approach to individualized instructional procedures.⁸

Median Standards

In general it may be said that the median number of pupils per class is about as follows: kindergarten, 28; elementary grades, 31; atypical classes, 16; junior high school (all subjects), 31, and senior high school (all subjects), 28. While these medians are indicated for all schools, the general rule is that the median size of class decreases as schools or school systems decrease in size and as the level of instruction mounts. There may, however, be a direct relationship of class size with the total number of pupils taught by each teacher. This is measured in "pupil hours" per day or week, that is, the number of pupils in classes times the number of hours (or periods) taught. For all elementary teachers the average is 873 pupil hours per week.⁹ For secondary teachers, great variations are reported. In the junior high school the average number of pupil hours of class instruction per week is 711, and in the senior high 561, with all secondary teachers 588. Men have a slightly heavier pupil hour load than women. These teachers taught an average number of twenty-five periods. These figures do not include other assignments, such as home room, study halls, activities and similar assignments, and free periods.

SCHEDULING

The school schedule as commonly understood might be characterized as a blueprint of the daily or weekly program. After the work load of each staff member has been determined, a schedule is pre-

⁸ See *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 212-216, for a good analysis of studies as to class size and accompanying bibliography.

⁹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teaching Load in 1950," *Research Bulletin*, February, 1951, pp. 10-13.

pared. In the elementary school each individual teacher or supervisor prepares a class program and daily time schedule, allotting the amount of time to be devoted to each subject and activity in each grade. If the school is departmentalized, a schedule of classes may be prepared by the principal or a committee of teachers, usually in cooperation with the central office. Beginning teachers may need much assistance in preparing schedules and in subsequent adjustment on the part of the principal or supervisory staff.

Influencing Factors

In the secondary school, schedule making is a more complicated process. Two groups of factors influence schedule building, (1) factors which are relatively fixed, and (2) factors which apply particularly to each school and must be adjusted to local conditions.¹⁰ Fixed factors include the physical plant and its limitations, legal requirements, local regulations, standards of accrediting associations and/or colleges, and custom and public opinion. Local conditions may affect schedule making in regard to teachers and teaching combinations, length of school day and class periods, activity program and routine assignments, allotments for home room, guidance and similar activities, nature of the school program and curriculum, and interests of the teachers. In part these may also apply to the elementary school.

Schedule Interruptions

Perhaps the most serious complaint of classroom teachers is the lack of provision in scheduling for occasional activities and unusual situations involving interruptions in classroom instruction and procedure. While such interruptions may be casual in the elementary school, they are of common occurrence in junior and senior high schools, examples being band and orchestra practice, rehearsals for school activities as plays, running errands, office and hall routine assignments, and interschool visitations. Perhaps some of these may be unavoidable; others are quite unnecessary. It is important in good administration to keep in mind that the principal assignment of the teacher is to teach, and he should be protected as far as possible through maintaining ideal conditions designed to facilitate this outcome.

¹⁰ J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1941, chap. 6.

Routine Duties and Assignments

Associated with the management of both elementary and secondary schools are duties which may be classified as routine, and ordinarily accepted by teachers as a part of this assignment. These include supervision of study halls, corridor duty, unscheduled pupil counseling, homeroom and attendance section assignments, records and reports, supply management, detention room, assembly duties including both program planning and monitor, lunchroom and playground duty, duties related to selling tickets, milk, school savings, and collecting monies for national or community funds, office assistance, faculty meetings, committee assignments, first aid, coaching, reporting before and remaining after school for a specified period, and many others. Teachers report an average of about four hours weekly in these assignments, with some secondary teachers reporting as much as 7.6 hours. The greatest frequency of routine activities reported by teachers are: class records and reports, monitorial duties, other than study halls, handling money, and faculty meetings.¹¹ Granted the necessity for many of these assignments, care should be exercised in that greater equalization among the staff may be secured, and that no assignment be made which is unnecessary or interferes with each teacher's first responsibility as a teacher.

Extra Pay for Extra Load

Perhaps the most phenomenal characteristic in the growth of secondary education is the multiplicity of activities which have been added to the school program. Terms such as *extracurricular* and *cocurricular* have been applied to these activities. While some of these have been integrated within the teaching assignment and regularly scheduled as a part of each teacher's assignment, most of them are scheduled for out-of-school hours as an additional part of the teacher's load. Examples of these activities include club sponsorships, school paper, yearbook, coaching, managements, and dramatic activities. The principle of extra pay for work beyond a normal load has long been in vogue for coaching. It has come to be applied in a larger number of school systems, both large and small. The following plans are found in practice: (1) pay the teacher a flat amount

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teaching Load in 1950," *Research Bulletin*, February, 1951, pp. 16-19.

for each activity or service in addition to regular salary; (2) pay the teacher a graduated amount based on (a) a scale determined for each activity, or (b) a point value determined for each activity multiplied by a basic unit rate; and (3) reassign teaching and activity duties on some standard such as total number of periods per day or total number of hours per week. In Altoona, for example, teachers are assigned a standard work week of thirty-five hours, including twenty-five hours of teaching and ten hours for routine and other assignments. Assignments in excess of this weekly work load are compensated for through a schedule determined by a committee of teachers.¹²

Challenges

While many school systems appear to be turning to some plan of extra compensation for so-called "extra services," attempts to multiply activities and determine relative values for scale pay have become so complicated as to challenge the soundness of the whole procedure. The practice is seriously questioned by many administrators who claim that effects on morale are bad and the procedure unjustifiable. What is needed is a reconsideration of the total educational program for each school in which "extracurricular" activities can be reevaluated in terms of their contribution to the objectives of the educational program and closely integrated into the program as a whole. So many of these activities have become entertainment features of questionable value involving a comparatively few number of students, rather than useful for truly educational purposes in which all boys and girls have a reasonably equal educational opportunity. If adequate salaries are paid to all teachers and each teacher's load is based on a fair and equitable distribution of the total service load, the confused thinking and questionable practices now prevailing may be eliminated.¹³

COMMUNICATION

The administrative staff will need to give much attention to ways and means of communication with all members of the staff in order to bring about a smooth working relationship. Some of the devices

¹² Harry L. Kriner, "Extra Compensation for Teachers Who Direct Student Activities," *American School Board Journal*, October, 1946, pp. 33-34.

¹³ Compare findings of a poll conducted by *Nation's Schools* entitled "What About Extra Pay for Extra Work?" June, 1947, p. 30.

which will be discussed in this section include (1) the school calendar, (2) the staff, (3) bulletins, (4) house organs, (5) direct contacts, (6) group conferences, and (7) committees.

The School Calendar

One of the first essentials in administering staff personnel is to secure on the part of each member of the staff a thorough understanding of the scheduled events of the year with a corresponding time schedule. To this end a school calendar should be prepared indicating the significant dates and related events and activities throughout the school term. Copies of this calendar should be made available to all members of the staff, both instructional and non-instructional. In some school systems a printed monthly calendar in two or more colors is prepared with all events listed; in others they are presented in mimeograph form.

In preparing the school calendar the school code should be carefully examined for all laws which have any reference to time, as length of term, observance of holidays, special days and weeks, length of month, report periods, admittance of children, examinations and promotions, teachers' meetings, and due dates in specific instances. Local and state regulations and observances should be recorded, as board meetings, staff meetings, parent-teacher associations, and scheduled school events. Included in the school calendar should be any time obligation to be observed. This will mean careful planning and full understanding.

Staff Officers—Supervisors and Principals

The size of the school system determines largely the organization of the line and staff personnel necessary in administering the system. The unit of organization may be said to be the school building in charge of a principal who becomes the person to whom the teacher is immediately responsible. The principal is coming more and more to be considered as the individual immediately responsible for the administration and supervision of his school and the staff assigned to it. Between the principal and the superintendent there may be a direct relationship in the smaller systems extending to line officers on two or three levels and staff members consisting of directors and supervisors. All of these may have some responsibility in teacher adjustment. If lines of responsibility are carefully drawn and duties

specifically determined, there should be little occasion for confusion in administrative and supervisory authority. Teachers should have a clear notion of these relationships. It is important that these relationships should result in a two-way procedure—that is, while the lines of administrative and supervisory authority may extend to the teacher, they should just as clearly extend from the teacher, so that the teacher may feel free to seek assistance for the solution of his problems. Nor should the teacher be denied direct access to any office, even of the superintendent of schools, if he feels that he has a problem and that better adjustment may be thereby accomplished.

Bulletins

The bulletin as a means of communication within the school system has come into general use. It serves as an economical device to convey information and directions without the necessity of calling together those for whom it is intended. Bulletins may serve a wide variety of purposes, and for purposes of classification may be divided into (1) administrative bulletins, (2) supervisory bulletins, and (3) those addressed to parents or community.

Administrative bulletins constitute by far the largest number. They may be used to convey information concerning routine school matters. These are usually prepared before the opening of school and distributed to teachers as the term begins. Such information may pertain to school service as health, report periods, grades and promotions, textbooks, supplies, teachers' meetings, duties and responsibilities, and the like. Loose-leaf folders may be provided so that subsequent issues, numbered and dated, may be filed for reference. While many bulletins are issued regularly, weekly or bi-weekly, bulletins may appear at any time when the occasion seems appropriate, even daily. They may inform teachers as to attendance, special events, rainy day sessions, a change in schedule. Bulletins may be issued to record fixed or delegated responsibilities, such as hall and cafeteria duties, study hall and library, and detention room. They may be used to convey information and suggest solutions to common problems of the school or system, or to explain a new policy adopted by the school board. They may list new books helpful to teachers or news of professional meetings.

In administering bulletins, the following suggestions may be found helpful.

1. The purpose of the bulletin should be clearly stated. If a part of a series this should be so indicated, with numerical sequence. It should be pointed out that most bulletins come to teachers' desks when they are occupied with their daily responsibilities; hence headings should be so worded as to "catch the eye" and direct attention. The bulletin should be brief and to the point, with instructions and explanations precisely and clearly stated. It goes without saying that proper form and good English are always necessary.
2. Since it may be difficult to distinguish the relative importance of a bulletin, it is obvious that teachers should be held accountable for their contents. Usually they constitute the official news of the school. Some form of acknowledgment may be necessary in some instances, as by initialing, or a returned signature. The whole routine of a school may be disrupted by the failure of one teacher to observe directions.
3. Since bulletins have both temporary and permanent value, care must be taken as to the form and manner of production. Inexpensive grades of paper may be used for temporary announcements. However, where the material is part of a series and intended for filing or is to be referred to from time to time, good paper should be used, perhaps in different colors if available, with identification by topic, series, number, or school. If intended to be filed in a loose leaf note book, the paper should be uniform in size and punched ready for filing.
4. The manner of reproduction of the bulletin may depend on the means available. Usually these are of four types, typewriter (with carbons), mimeograph, indelible ink duplicator, and hectograph. Whatever the form of duplication, they should be neat and clearly legible.¹⁴

House Organs

Business and industry have long used the house organ as a means of diminishing the distance between men and management and supplying the need for a lack of close personal contacts. More recently, the house organ has come in general use within the schools in order to inform the staff and secure greater cooperation among them. It has been developed as a point of contact between the administration, principals, and teachers, especially in larger cities where this distance makes some such device necessary.

¹⁴ The reader will find a good discussion of bulletins in George C. Kyte, *The Principal at Work*, Boston, Ginn & Company, 1952, chap. 17.

Generally, there is little uniformity as to the editorship of the school house organ or the nature of its contents. It may be edited by an administrative staff member or a group of teachers and/or principals. It may be personal in its form of address, or impersonal, including material of general interest.

House organs may include reports of studies, school statistics, signed articles, illustrations, directions, appreciation sketches of teachers and others, survey of school conditions, inspirational items, reviews of professional books and timely articles, and news of professional meetings. Thus any item of this nature which may diminish distance and create interest and morale may be included. Usually, the cost is borne by the district. Attention should be given to its distribution, frequency, and effectiveness. All staff members should be included within its scope, both instructional and non-instructional.

Direct Contacts

Thus far in our discussion of means of communication, we have considered forms of indirect contact. Policies as to communication should include direct contacts, which may be of three types: (1) individual conferences, (2) group conferences, and (3) representative councils.

Opportunities for individual conferences with staff members should be provided in every school system regardless of size or organization. We are not concerned here with supervisory conferences which will be discussed in another section; rather with personal contacts which bring administration and teachers more closely together. These may be used to convey personal information, to secure the staff members' suggestions, to assist in the formation of policy, and to become "better acquainted." Within the busy schedule of both administrative officer and staff member, these should be so arranged as to lead to the most effective use of time. The conference should be cordial, ordinarily brief, to the point, and ending with a mutual feeling that something worthwhile has been accomplished. Best times for conferences are before the school session in the morning, after school in the afternoon, or on Saturday if a part of school policy. Noon hours or free periods are not always the most satisfactory times. Care should be taken to avoid interruptions as lengthy telephone conversations. Tact may be essential in terminating the

conference, best means being some summary statement, coming to agreement quickly, rising from chair, or perhaps a story. With some persons none of these will be effective, and one will just have to say "Good day" pleasantly. Perhaps an understanding secretary can help.

Group Conferences

These may consist of staff meetings of the entire group, committees, or just two or three teachers or others who came or were invited to call. Group conferences may be called for several purposes: (1) for administrative purposes, (2) for supervisory purposes, and (3) as a social gathering. At this point, we are concerned with the group conferences called for administrative purposes.

On occasion, meetings of the entire staff or of a portion may be called for the presentation and discussion of matters of administration. Purposes may be clearly stated. They may be (1) to convey information and (2) to obtain cooperative planning and unified action. As to the first, the time of the staff should not be taken up with routine matters which can be more appropriately handled by means of bulletins. Unified action of the entire staff may be advisable in matters of school policy, personnel matters affecting the staff, changes in school organization and procedure, urgent routine matters, and emergency situations. They may be called to honor a colleague, to introduce a staff member or celebrity, or on occasions of staff bereavement. Where the outcome is one of securing greater unity of purpose on the part of both staff and administration, the occasion would appear to be justifiable.

Staff meetings should be held at hours most convenient to the group. While regular staff meetings of this character are not generally advocated, it is suggested that a definite time be fixed for them which can be utilized as the occasion demands, such as at 3 o'clock Monday with dismissal in time to allow teachers to attend promptly. They may be planned by the administrative staff alone or in co-operation with a committee of teachers. They should be brief, properly conducted, and to the point. The teachers' interest should be secured at the outset. There should be opportunity for group discussion and decision where advisable, using democratic procedures. The meeting should not be prolonged; it should end in peace and harmony, with a feeling of group accomplishment on the part of all.

Committees of the Staff

From time to time committees of teachers or other members of the staff may desire to make direct contact with the administration. These may be committees from a particular school, from the teachers' association, or from a particular school or a particular group, as elementary or secondary. They may be appointees of the administrative staff or grow out of a group conference. Whatever the occasion, committees of the staff should have a recognized status and be provided with all courtesies and necessary assistance to accomplish their purposes. This may include release from their teaching or other responsibilities. Means should be provided for them to report back to their constituency.

Individual Contacts

While most contacts of this sort may be supervisory in nature, there are occasions in which the members of the staff make direct contacts for administrative purposes. With line and staff personnel, the purposes of these occasions may be quite obvious. With teachers and others, there may be need to discuss matters of policy, selection, tenure, and individual school problems. It is important that appropriate times be provided for these contacts and that complete freedom and good will be maintained throughout. Scheduled appointments should be met and terminated promptly.

COORDINATING COUNCILS

Purposes

The democratic approach to school administration has influenced the development of coordinating councils composed of representatives of unit groups within the school system. These councils are generally found in larger school systems, and in those schools where the administration is thoroughly imbued with the democratic principle. Councils may serve several purposes: (1) they may consider matters of teacher welfare; (2) they may integrate activities of several building facilities; (3) they may seek continuous improvement of the instructional processes; (4) they may be organized largely for professional purposes; (5) they may emphasize social relationships within the staff; and (6) they may serve as a policy making and

representative group, thus making direct contacts with the administration. It is possible that all or nearly all of the above purposes may be served by a coordinating staff council within the school.

Organization

There are many ways to organize such a council. Best procedure is through elected representatives of the staff by units, as buildings. If the council is to include members of the administration, some democratic method of election should be employed, so long as it does not conflict with responsibility for leadership. If the representative council is large, say twenty-five or more, a small coordinating council may be formed within the larger unit. The duties of a council should be clearly defined and the leadership properly designated. Since we are concerned with administrative contacts in this chapter, the council offers an excellent opportunity for a mutual exchange of ideas between administration and staff. Decisions should be arrived at through democratic procedures and within the framework of legal mandates and administration responsibilities.

A good example of a school policies council is to be found in Denver.¹⁵ Membership in the council consists of approximately one teacher for twenty-five teachers, all administrators and all principals, and officers of the staff organization. Proposals may be offered by any member of the staff. Following adoption, proposals become statements of general policy. Individual schools in the city then interpret the policy in the light of their own needs and resources.

Procedures in Group Planning

In the preceding sections, we have been concerned with different forms of direct contacts between the administration and the staff through which administrative adjustments can be achieved. Satisfying outcomes are hardly possible without the application of best procedures for the accomplishment of the ends sought. The task of thinking together and arriving at common understandings is not an easy one, since different personalities and points of view per-

¹⁵ Described in G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1943, pp. 96-98. See also William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, Dryden Press, 1951, pp. 372-373; and Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949.

cular to each group are brought together, often without adequate preparation and knowledge of the best procedures in arriving at these common understandings. Much has been done recently in developing and applying sound procedures in group action. In group planning and action, each individual learns to subordinate his personal interests to group interest, respecting the wishes of the majority in situations requiring common action. These principles and procedures of group planning and action will be discussed at greater length in another chapter.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Satisfying adjustments of the teacher to his position should include careful consideration to the working conditions which pertain to that position. The following will be discussed: (1) school environment, (2) health and safety, and (3) rest rooms and free periods.

School Environment

Materially, the school environment consists of the school site, the building, and the equipment and materials within the building. When these are harmoniously selected, coordinated and administered, the educational process is enhanced in many ways. Much can be done by the administration in providing a satisfactory school environment for both teachers and pupils. The school site should be sufficiently large to provide playground space, with the building well situated and landscaped. It should be free from disturbing noises, confusion, odors, smoke, and dust, and have an adequate supply of good water. Sanitation measures are essential. Means should be provided to make the rooms and building within and without socially and culturally attractive, with definite elements of beauty, all adapted to educational activity.¹⁶

Health and Safety

There are many aspects of the school environment which pertain to health and safety factors. There should be adequate illumination and protection from glare, desirable temperature conditions and ven-

¹⁶ William A. Yeager, *Administration and the Pupil*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949, chap. 15.

tilation, freedom from draft and exposure, good sanitary facilities, safe drinking water, and protection from fire and other hazards. Experiments have recently been made in regard to varying wall colors in relation to exposure, with their appropriate effects on the hygiene of the classroom. Since the teacher is the "home keeper" of the children during their school hours, it is obvious that the "home" of both during these hours should be equivalent to attractive home conditions.

The mental hygiene of the classroom is just as important for teachers as for pupils. Conditions which affect emotional strain in any form should be studied and alleviated. These may include too large classes, disciplinary problems, maladjusted teachers, unwholesome teachers, teacher relationships, and many other points of irritation.

The personal health of the teacher should be given constant surveillance. The strenuous demands of the modern curriculum require much in the way of teacher strength and energy. The teacher's personal health is far more than an individual problem, since it affects directly and indirectly the health, happiness, and success of the children. Periodic health examinations are required in many districts and physically or mentally unfit personnel should be removed. Since the teacher's health will be discussed at greater length in another chapter, our interest here is in bringing about such administrative adjustments as will maintain a healthful and hygienic situation for every staff member.

Rest Rooms and Free Periods

Business and industry have for many years given consideration to health and safety factors in administering their personnel. Rest rooms are provided; often a nurse is on duty with a physician on call, and hospital facilities provided as needed. Rest rooms for teachers will be found only in modern school buildings and in large school systems, with women teachers having the greater advantage. These facilities should be provided for *all* employees as an essential factor in teacher efficiency and health.

Daily free periods for teachers have long been incorporated into the schedules of secondary schools in order to reduce the strain of continuous classroom teaching. In many instances, routine duties have been crowded into these periods, reducing the amount of free

time and increasing the total load. Kyte¹⁷ has graphically pointed out the scope of these duties in the schedules of fifteen teachers covering a ten weeks' period. Schedules in secondary schools should be so arranged as to include some free time for all teachers during which they may withdraw to a rest room for a brief period. The same suggestion applies to the elementary school. Unfortunately, these teachers must exercise continuous oversight over a group of children, so that free periods are difficult to arrange. Most conducive to satisfying daily adjustments of both teachers and pupils to daily school routine is a well-planned, orderly procedure in which there is the quiet hum of activity through the maintenance of self-control, and in which each child knows what to do and does it.

Much can be done to bring about a better adjustment of the teacher to his position through adequate materials of instruction. These include textbooks, reference materials, audio-visual aids, equipment and supplies. Many teachers have been forced to purchase needed supplies because of niggardly attitudes of school officials. Budget policy in this regard is an administration matter and should be given the attention it deserves.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Interview two or more teachers in regard to any peculiar adjustment they have had to make to their positions. List those for which the (a) administration, (b) teachers are primarily responsible. What suggestions can you offer?
2. How do adjustments of elementary teachers compare with secondary teachers? Be specific.
3. Apply the Douglass Formula of measuring teacher load to a selected high school. Can it be fully applied? What are its deficiencies?
4. Evaluate the Douglass Formula from the standpoint of (a) criteria in this chapter, (b) other formulas, (c) your findings of question 3.
5. Study a selected high school in regard to (a) overload, (b) underload of teachers. What adjustments would you make?
6. What is the best evidence you can find in regard to optimum class size?
7. Take a position on the issue "extra pay for extra duty." Defend it.
8. List in order the three best means of communication with teachers within a school system. How would you apply them?

¹⁷ George C. Kyte, *The Principal at Work*, Boston, Ginn & Company, rev. ed., 1952, p. 202.

9. Describe the workings of a coordinating school council. Is it effective? How can it be improved?
10. Show how the principles of group dynamics can be applied in school staff relationships by reference to a particular problem.
11. Visit a selected school system and evaluate the working conditions of all the teachers. What are your suggestions?
12. As an administrator, how would you proceed to administer the suggestions indicated in this chapter to effect a greater degree of administrative adjustment? Select those you would administer in order of importance.

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Administrative Adjustments Concerning Absence, Turnover, Transfer, Promotion, Shortage, and Morale of Teachers

IN EVERY school system, however carefully planned the school organization may be, and however smooth the administrative procedures may appear to operate, there are many occasions in which interruptions occur to affect the orderly procedures within the system. Administrative adjustments need to be made when there is some condition present which interferes with the responsibility of the teacher to carry on his regular assignments. It is necessary that these be foreseen wherever possible, and that policies be developed which can be utilized to maintain the needed adjustments so that the needs of the staff member may be provided for and the school system function effectively.

In this chapter then the following topics will be presented: (1) teacher absences, (2) the substitute teacher, (3) the part-time teacher, (4) teacher transfer and promotion, (5) teacher turnover, (6) teacher shortage, and (7) maintaining morale of the entire staff. All of these will be discussed from the point of view of administrative policies necessary to bring about essential individual adjustments.

TEACHER ABSENCE

Normally, a teacher is expected to carry out his assignments daily without interruption as long as the schools are in session, yet there are many occasions when it is justifiable, even imperative, for a

teacher to be absent from his regular duties. Such absence may be of mutual advantage, as when a teacher attends a professional meeting to improve his own work, or when he is ill and is thereby unlikely to do full justice to his responsibilities. Sound policy with respect to leaves of absence is essential in all school systems in order to maintain teaching efficiency and morale. For purposes of this discussion, leaves of absence will be classified as (1) personal, (2) family, (3) professional, and (4) civic.

Personal

Undoubtedly, the most important personal reason for teacher absence is illness of the teacher. This includes physical and mental incapacity in any form as well as maternity leave. The principle of sick leave with pay under certain conditions is well established in the profession of teaching. About one-third of the states prescribe by state-wide legislation that teachers shall be entitled to a minimum number of days with pay in each school year. Four other states permit discretion in the matter by local regulation. In nearly all the remaining states, some form of sick leave benefit is recognized by local authority.¹ The teacher retirement laws in almost every state contain some provisions for disability allowances. While all states have workmen's compensation laws, not all teachers are covered by these laws.

Practices in regard to the administration of sick leave with pay vary widely. There is great variation as to rates of pay, number of days granted, doctor's certificate, reasons, with benefits to teachers in larger cities more advantageous. Arguments in favor of sick leave with pay are (1) illness contracted in school, (2) better mental attitude during illness, (3) prevent spread of disease, (4) a teacher's economic position is generally such that personal loss of income cannot be sustained, and (5) heavy assignment may be a casual factor. Where the sick-leave benefit is supplemented by hospitalization benefits and other forms of health insurance, the pecuniary loss may become a financial asset. This movement is in accord with the social welfare movement as applied to all workers.

¹ The reader will find a complete state-by-state analysis of sick leave and disability benefits under state laws in National Education Association, Research Division, "Teachers in our Public Schools," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1949, p. 149. The subject of sick leave will be treated more adequately in another chapter.

Maternity leaves² for women teachers may be defended on similar grounds. Some consider maternity as an act of God and as well as a social benefit necessary for the welfare of society. Maternity leaves enable the retention of the services of a good teacher. These leaves are usually without pay and extend for a greater length of time.

Family

Leaves of absence for family reasons include illness and/or death in the immediate family, quarantine, weddings in the immediate family, moving (change of residence), religious holidays, and emergencies as acts of God. Leaves of absence for family reasons with pay should only be considered if within the immediate family and limited to two or three days per year. Usually, there is no question where illness and death in the immediate family are the reason for absence. Debatable are requests for leaves on account of religious holidays, movings, and so called emergencies. Debatable also is the amount of time necessary, as well as the particular time chosen. For example, one teacher may take Wednesday and Thursday to move to a new home while another more conscientious teacher selects Saturday and Sunday. Since there is some abuse of privilege on the part of a few individuals in regard to leaves of this type, well-understood rules may be necessary for the smooth operation of any well intentioned plan.

Professional

A well-administered plan for professional leaves of absence can contribute much to the in-service improvement of teachers. The very nature of teaching requires its constant improvement, and the teacher nonetheless so. Most teachers enter the profession with certain professional deficiencies which the ordinary routines of supervision are incapable of correcting. Since constant improvement in service is necessary on the part of every teacher, provision for it should be made both within the school day or week while teaching and through absence from ordinary duties.

Attending educational meetings and observing in other schools are two legitimate reasons for temporary leave with pay and are

² Maternity leaves of absence will be treated more extensively in another chapter.

generally recognized. Both of these should be properly supervised, with some form of report both to the administration as well as the staff. Difficulty may arise as to provision for substitute teachers, the teacher or teachers selected, and the time taken, if more than one day or during a busy season. Many teachers become resentful if these advantages are extended to a privileged few, as the superintendent, principal, or a popular teacher.

College and university study, especially to gain a degree or certificate, may require a more extended leave. It is inadvisable for a teacher to "load up" in college or university credits during the school year and even during the summer, because of the extended drain upon the nervous energy of teachers, especially if he denies himself reasonable recreation thereby. For these reasons sabbatical years (one in seven) have become quite common. Originating in colleges and universities, the practice has extended to the public schools and is written into the statutes of several states. Rarely is full salary given for the sabbatical leave; rather a reduced amount based on the difference between the teacher's salary and that of a substitute, or in many cases, an agreed portion of the salary. Some school systems grant an extra step on the salary schedule upon completion of additional preparation. Many schools require refunding of at least a portion of the money received while on sabbatical leave if the teacher fails to return or does not give a specified number of years of subsequent service.

Extended leaves for travel are granted less frequently than those for purely professional improvement, usually with little or no salary remuneration. However, travel as a means of professional growth is coming more and more in popular favor among both teachers and administrators. If travel is combined with an educational opportunity, the results are doubly beneficial.

Exchange teaching has certain advantages to both teachers as a means of professional improvement. Usually arranged between two cities, there can be a three way and even a four way arrangement. It is vitalizing for the teacher as well as the pupils, serving to invigorate teachers who may have lost zest for their work. Problems of travel, allowances, and living arrangements can be made the responsibility of the local teachers' association. Similarly, exchange teaching as a means of improving cultural relations and good will.

among nations has demonstrated its usefulness and should be more widely practiced. Problems in arrangements are perhaps greatly intensified, offering challenges to professional associations as well as governmental authorities. Other problems in exchange teaching are temporary certification, qualifications, financial arrangements, tenure and retirement status, and attitudes toward domestic issues.

One of the most wholesome movements in the development of teaching as a profession is the emphasis on teacher participation in association activities. Such activities include regional, state and national conventions, workshops, committees and commissions, preparation of reports and documents, and active field work among members, legislators, or other laymen. Many administrators and board members are inclined to oppose leaves of absence for teachers for these purposes on the ground that benefits to the school system are likely to be small as compared with the loss of services. Where it can be demonstrated that such professional service is of lasting benefit to the teachers and pupils concerned, there should be no objection.

Civic and Governmental

There are many instances where leaves of absence may be necessary for participation in civic affairs. These include court summons, jury duty, exercising the franchise, especially where distance is involved, local celebrations, local and state government, community-sponsored projects as Red Cross, Community fund, fraternal organizations. While teachers may be excused in these instances upon request, deductions in salary are generally made, especially where the teacher receives some financial return. The same policy might well hold where requests are made for leave to go shopping, visiting, hunting, and fishing, attend sporting events (as World Series), and inclement weather. However, teachers should not be penalized for absence due to acts of God, nor should such absences without permission be charged against their record. It should be well to point out that teachers themselves may be responsible for an unfavorable attitude on the part of the board or the administration if unfair advantage or unusual demands have been taken by them.

Leave regulations for military duty are generally quite liberal and favorable to the teacher, with indefinite leave and the same or simi-

lar position guaranteed upon return. Reinstatement may be made on request. Employment of a substitute on a long time basis in such instances is not always satisfactory and may result in poor teaching and low standards. During war periods teachers have been granted leaves of absence to serve in defense positions contributing to the war effort. Leaves of absence have also been granted where teachers may engage in business or other pursuits, either for personal reasons or because of needed experience, as shop or commercial teachers. These are within the discretion of the board and without salary. Care should always be taken in establishing embarrassing precedents.

ABSENCE POLICIES

Basic Considerations

In setting up a policy pertaining to leaves of absence, state laws and regulations should first be carefully examined for authorization and procedure. Care should be made to recognize matters pertaining to tenure, retirement, salary schedules, certification and contract. Local rules and regulations should then be drawn up within this framework, and adequate recognition of and provision for personal, family, professional, civic, military and other purposes. The basic policy might well include provision for authorization, period of absence, salary payments within an agreed minimum if any, as applied to the classification, eligibility for leave, return to service, reporting, and conditions respecting security of position. The education of pupils during the absence of the teacher should be adequately safeguarded through capable substitutes. All conditions of the leave should be clearly stated and understood and abuses safeguarded. Conditions within the school which may contribute to the necessity for the leave as illness due to badly heated rooms should be immediately corrected. The payment of any part of the teacher's salary by the board for a leave of absence ought to be justified in some demonstrative professional return, directly or indirectly, by that staff member.

While, under ordinary circumstances, leaves of absence may be administered by the superintendent or other executive officer, applications may be received by a committee of the administration

and/or representatives of the teachers' association, with final approval by the board. It should be agreed and understood that the scope of the policy ought to be such as to apply as well to nonteaching personnel.

Policy on Professional Leave

The necessity for an acceptable policy for the guidance and control of professional leaves of absence is quite apparent. Such a policy should be prepared in cooperation with the state or regional teachers' associations and be approved by the board of education and the administration. The following might be considered as a part of this policy: (1) the number of teachers on leave at any one time should be limited to about 2 per cent of the staff; (2) applications for leave should be accepted only from those who have rendered at least seven years' acceptable service and should be approved by a committee comprised of the administration and teachers; (3) some part of the regular salary but not exceeding a specified amount should be paid to the teacher during leave of absence; (4) tenure, retirement, and seniority rights should be retained; (5) proper reports to the administration and the profession should be required; (6) the teacher should agree to return to service for a period of two years following the leave, unless released by the board, in which case all or an agreed amount of board remuneration may be returned; and (7) exceptions to these stipulations may be made in special cases as where a staff member is elected to a state or other office or receives appointment of trust or honor. In such cases, the policy committee should consider the case and make recommendations for the board. Action in every case is to become a matter of official record. It is always wise to remove blocks where merited promotion is involved.

Some authorities have pointed out that there is no conclusive evidence of the effect of any leave practice upon the effectiveness of the teachers concerned.³ The judgments of teachers and supervisors are favorable to their effectiveness as generally applied. While teachers may receive benefit, there is need for further evidence of superior service rendered in terms of pupil learning. Until this is done, practice will be determined largely by administrative decisions influenced by teacher demand.

³ Monroe, W. S., ed., "Sick Leaves and Leaves of Absence," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 1436-1438.

THE SUBSTITUTE TEACHER

Administrative Nature

Closely related to the administration of absences of staff personnel is the provision for personnel to "carry on" in their absence. The term "substitute teacher" has come to be generally applied to these personnel. It is commonly accepted practice that this administrative function should be administered in the superintendent's office or under his direction for the entire school system. Some reasons for this practice are: (1) to expedite the placement of substitutes; (2) to relieve principals of pressures; (3) to maintain educational standards; (4) to maintain accurate records; and (5) to provide a more unified instructional program. Naturally, the maintenance of this central service requires close attention on the part of the one directing it. However, the service may be expedited through careful planning and the exercise of "common sense" on the part of absentees. Where the selection and assignment of the substitute can be determined through sufficient notification and the elements of a working policy applied, routines can be more easily administered. In smaller school systems, the secretary of the superintendent or a designated clerk is in charge of the service; in larger systems, a designated person in the personnel department.

Definition

A substitute teacher is usually defined as one assigned temporarily to the duties of a regular teacher who is absent—to serve until the regular teacher returns or another is appointed. Three classifications of substitutes are in practice: (1) those employed from an approved list on a "per diem" basis, subject to call as needed, (2) full-time substitutes who may rotate as needed or used in other capacities, and (3) permanent substitutes who apparently have the same duties as regular teachers and who for some reason such as inexperience, inadequate preparation, or marital status are not classified as regular teachers and do not receive full salary.

Qualifications

Ordinarily, the qualifications for substitute teachers should be the same as for regular teachers. This is common practice. However, depending on the supply, various qualifications may be waived, in-

cluding experience, residence, marital status, health examinations, specific certification, and certain types of preparation. It is usually more difficult to secure qualified substitutes in the secondary field, especially in special subject areas. Permanent substitutes may be so classified because of one or more of these deficiencies.

Sources

Substitutes are recruited largely through personal application to the superintendent or the principal. In many instances, teachers awaiting appointment are given preference. All applications should receive careful consideration. Records should be made of their qualifications and other data similar to regular teachers. All persons accepted for substitute service are then placed on an approved list. Many teachers leaving the service because of marriage remain on the substitute list, and if competent, are usually given preference.

Other sources of substitutes are the use of students in teacher education institutions and cadet teachers already accepted as such within the system on the whole. Occasionally, mature pupils are used as substitute teachers for short-term periods and may be recruited from clubs, such as the Future Teachers of America (FTA). Quite often, regular teachers substitute for each other by combining classes or sending classes to the study hall under the supervision of another teacher.

The presence of unappointed teachers who are otherwise qualified has resulted especially in larger cities, in rotating substitute teachers on the approved list, and even in assigning two substitutes to the same room, if the class is unusually large. There is something to be said for maintaining school contacts on the part of unappointed teachers in order to maintain interest and avoid disappointment.

Administrative Routines

The administration of the substitute service has two aspects: (1) short-term service of the substitute covering brief absences, often of an emergency nature, and (2) long-term service in which a leave of absence or resignation is a reason. In the first instance, the teacher who plans to be absent should notify the superintendent, principal, or other personnel officer in charge of the service as far in advance as possible. Substitutes who accept service should likewise

expect calls on very short notice. They should be expected to have a reasonable knowledge of subject matter and routines in the areas covering their assignments, and make every effort to teach rather than merely "keep school."

Many systems use an absence form for reporting teacher absences, substitutes, and other information. The absent teacher should give due notice whenever possible as to when he expects to return to service. The record should contain some appraisal of the services of the substitute, in which case if unsatisfactory, another substitute should be appointed. If the substitute for any reason cannot accept assignment when called, he should request temporary removal of his name from the active list, or indicate conditions for accepting assignment.

Instructions to substitute teachers should be clear and definite. These include specific directions as to routines and teaching standards and procedures. It is the duty of the substitute to be familiar with them. To this end, a conference of all substitutes may be called one or more times during the school year. More difficult is the problem of taking up teaching assignments on short notice. Many school systems require daily or weekly plan books. Absent teachers can leave a written outline or inform the substitute by telephone or conference. Principals can do much by a friendly greeting to the substitute with proper introduction to the class where advisable. The substitute should leave a record of his activities and report before leaving to the principal.

Supervision of the substitute presents many problems. In many cities, they are expected to attend all regular teachers' meetings. Professional courses, readings and observations may be required. Bulletins to substitute teachers with suggestions have much value. Regular teachers can assist with suggestions and in a friendly manner maintain confidence and morale. The report of the principal or supervisor of the substitute teacher's services should be definite, constructive, and honest, always with a paramount concern for the boys and girls.

Substitute teachers on short term service are usually paid a "per diem" rate, depending on the salary scale. For long term service the annual salary is agreed to. Since there is wide variation in amounts paid, no standard of pay can be suggested. Usually it is considerably below the regular teachers' salaries.

Research

There is need for further research in regard to the substitute teachers. Anderson has indicated the following areas for research: (1) determining functions, (2) developing programs of in-service training, (3) integrating the work of the substitute with the regular teachers, and (4) evaluating the effectiveness of substitute teaching and service.⁴

THE PART-TIME TEACHER

An administrative problem which has not been given the attention it deserves is the adjustment of the part-time teacher. Such teachers may be of several types: (1) a full-time teacher who is assigned teaching duties in different buildings within the same district, such as special teacher, (2) a full-time teacher who is assigned teaching duties in different buildings in two or more districts, (3) a teacher who reports for part-time duty, as mornings or afternoons.

While it may be possible to acquaint these teachers with their routine and teaching responsibilities along with other teachers, difficulties arise in assignment and especially supervision because of the differing conditions under which they may teach, and because of divided responsibility. There may be problems of scheduling, transportation, timing, adjusting for special events as musical programs, and maintaining control and morale. Lack of restraint becomes a problem because of infrequent contacts, especially if more than one district is concerned.

One administrative device in using teachers on a part-time basis has been overlooked. Teachers approaching retirement or whose health is below normal are required normally to maintain the usual teaching load without regard to relief or adjustment. Many such teachers would be able to continue teaching if an adjustment on a half-time basis could be made. Thus two such teachers could "team up" for a given grade, or departmental schedule, a high school assignment, using their services and enabling them to carry an assignment in accordance with their strength and vitality. Moreover, retirement or disability rates of pay are often insufficient to enable

⁴ Earl W. Anderson, "Teacher Personnel—Substitute Teachers," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 1424.

them to live decently. This plan offers a way of meeting the needs of these teachers and retaining good teachers for a longer period.

TRANSFER

There are many occasions when it is desirable to transfer a member of the staff both for the good of the system as well as the good or desire of the teacher himself. The welfare of the pupils and the school should have first priority in the services of every teacher. As long as this can be maintained, every effort should be made to meet the wishes of the staff member who desires transfer. At the same time, good teachers and good teaching should be recognized through promotion or other regards and advantages. Perhaps there is no more important factor in maintaining morale than in recognizing good service in some manner.

Administrative Concerns in Transfer

From the standpoint of the administrative staff, there are several concerns in regard to the transfers of staff members. 1. The teacher may not possess the disciplinary ability to meet a given class situation. 2. The teacher may be ill adapted to a particular grade or subject or a given group of pupils. 3. The teacher may be better suited elsewhere to strengthen a weak situation. 4. One teacher may not be able to get along personally with his fellow teachers or the principal. 5. The teacher may be needed in another capacity, either temporarily or permanently. 6. Good service on the part of any teacher should be recognized on a merit basis, with transfer or promotion if requested. 7. Transfer may be necessitated because of lower enrollment, abolishment of position, new educational program or other similar factors. 8. The teacher may be transferred "for the good of the system," which may include one or more reasons indicated above or more likely, because he does not fit. In such cases it may be difficult to find an adequate basis which can be openly explained.

Teacher's Concern in Transfer

On his part, the teacher may be concerned with transfer in the following ways: (1) he may desire to secure a position closer to his place of residence, which in most instances may be a justifiable reason. Every effort should be made to avoid long tedious daily journeys to and from home on the part of the teacher; (2) the teacher

may desire professional experience in another capacity, as a higher level grade, or another subject; (3) the teacher may want experience which fits more closely his certification status; (4) on his part, the teacher may find personality clashes unsatisfactory and request transfer; (5) the school's environment may be distasteful to the teacher; (6) the teacher's health may be a factor; and (7) a transfer may involve financial betterment.

Administrative Routines in Transfer

Transfers may take place within the same building or from building to building upon the principal's recommendation and the mutual agreement of the teachers concerned. In all cases final approval must be secured through the superintendent or personnel office. Suitable forms should be provided for transfer requests, accompanied by conferences. In all cases reasons should be clearly understood by both parties. If failure in any way is involved, reasons should be clearly indicated with appropriate anecdotal evidence. Care must be taken not to show favoritism among teachers in transfer, for no factor is more likely to cause resentment and jealousy. If health is involved, there should be an insistence on routine checkup and medical attention where necessary. Care must be taken not to displace another teacher unduly merely to satisfy an inordinate whim or caprice.

Some teachers may be so temperamentally framed as to become alarmed by initial failures or mistakes, being unwilling to face a situation and "see it through." They seem to think that the "other position" offers so many more possibilities for them. A good rule to follow in such instances is to insist that each teacher "stay with" the situation long enough to demonstrate his own powers. The length of time may be determined after a careful scrutiny of the situation. It is always better to transfer at the beginning of a term or semester rather than during it. There is much to be said for insisting that each teacher finish, as far as possible, what he has begun. Only where the situation seems hopeless should there be deviation from this observation.

Occasionally, teachers who originally objected to transfer demonstrate unanticipated capabilities in a new position and are eventually happier. Care must be taken to avoid politics, pressures, resentment, and bad judgment in transfer. Records should be adequate and rea-

sons substantiated. Evidences of merit or failure should always be at hand. Pecuniary or other rewards are powerful incentives and should be thought through carefully. While "for the good of the system" is always a justifiable approach, it should not be abused.

Unwise Practices in Transfer

It has been pointed out that there are always occasions to transfer teachers from grade to grade, building to building, or in other capacities due to problems of enrollment, load, personality clashes, failure, or an opportunity for another chance in a new environment. There should be no objection to such transfers where the reasons are in accord with good administrative practice and judgment and the motives honest. Occasions arise, however, where transfers are made for reasons of dissimulation, false pretense, or favoritism. Teachers who are outspoken and critical of a policy or a personality may find themselves suddenly transferred without prior notice or reason. In some cases teachers are transferred as a means of punishment or intimidation. In others, relatives or favorites of board members or friends must be provided for. False charges may even be preferred to establish a basis for the transfer. Occasionally, teachers may be "hounded" so that they ask for transfer or eventually resign. These ways may even result in violation of the tenure rights of teachers. Resulting action has a profound effect on the morale of all teachers.

There are many issues at stake where such unwise practices are applied to transfer of staff members. Among these are abridgment of freedom of speech, dictatorship of the administrative staff or board of education, nepotism, violation of ethical principles, effects on health, integrity, and personality as well as teaching effectiveness of the teacher, and resulting effects of poor teaching on the pupils themselves.⁵

Demotion for any cause bears a close relationship to the discussions in the preceding section. If the teacher has demonstrated competency through the period of probation, other things being equal, he has a reasonable expectancy of security of position and tenure. In fact, many state laws and court decisions favor the teacher where demotion either in position or salary is involved. This does not

⁵ Illustrations of unwise practices of this nature will be found in National Education Association, *Certain Personnel Practices in the Chicago Public Schools*, National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, 1945.

mean that teachers are protected by the law without regard to competency, since there is ample provision for teacher dismissal for cause, if charges are substantiated.

PROMOTION

Promotion is closely related to transfer as a factor in administrative adjustment. Many of the suggestions indicated above for transfer have application to promotion. Consideration in promotion should be from the standpoint of the good of (1) better administration and the system, and (2) the teacher.

Factors

Administrative factors in promotion of staff members may be indicated as follows: (1) the length of service of the teacher in a particular position or school; (2) the provisions of the salary schedule which usually include length of service and salary steps; (3) demonstration of professional fitness on the part of the teacher such as teaching ability, unusual capacity or abilities as with activities, leadership; (4) evidence of growth through rise in certification status, credits, and advanced degrees, (5) all-around professional growth generally evidenced by maturation; (6) personality development; (7) results in examinations; (8) rating evidence; and (9) opportunities for advancement in positions as they are available.

Many of the above factors apply as well to the teacher himself as he desires promotion. On his part, however, the young teacher particularly may expect to find opportunities for promotion within the system available to him upon demonstration of ability. Perhaps there is no more powerful incentive to good work on the part of younger teachers, particularly young men, than the opportunities which lie within the system itself. He may expect to find these (1) in the salary schedule, both in advancement through length of service as well as in additional training, (2) in opportunities through extra assignments which may or may not include extra pay, and (3) in opportunities to advance to another school, educational level, or to an administrative position, through demonstrated efficiency, professional advancements, or examination.

Administration Concerns

The administration concerns in regard to promotion may well grow out of the factors suggested above. Incentives should be pro-

vided within the system which will stimulate good work on the part of every staff member. These include the salary schedule, good supervision, evidences of teaching success, personal and professional encouragement, opportunities for demonstration of abilities especially through additional service, and an examination system in certain instances. In large cities these become the responsibility of the personnel department in cooperation with supervisors and principals. Occasionally, teachers may be promoted against their will because of some demonstration of efficiency or need elsewhere. If the teacher is unhappy in this arrangement, his wishes should be respected.

Promotion to Administrative Positions

Any promotional plan should include opportunities for advancement to supervisory or administrative positions; in fact, many younger teachers hold this to be the principal objective of promotion. Highly selective procedures should be developed so that demonstrated leadership abilities within the system can be recognized and rewarded accordingly. In addition to professional capacity through teaching, tests should be made of leadership competencies⁶ as well as personality factors. This may necessitate an elaborate plan, with weighted evidence, and an eligibility listing. Selection should take place for such an eligibility list, usually from among the three highest. Many good teachers ambitious for promotion to positions of leadership but lacking in certain essential qualities should be encouraged to continue in those positions where they have demonstrated efficiency. Incentives can be provided them through increased salaries, personal encouragement, and the rewards inherent in good teaching itself. It is perhaps better for a good teacher to remain a good teacher than to become a poor administrator.

Many school systems are finding it more advantageous to maintain cooperative relationships with universities who are developing educational leaders. Promising young persons are encouraged either from within or without the school system to prepare for positions of educational leadership under the cooperative direction of the superintendent or personnel director and the university coordinator.

⁶For a suggested list of educational leadership competencies, see *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation*, Second Work Conference, National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Madison, Wis., 1948.

One aspect of this training is the internship, during which the candidate is engaged in both extensive and intensive administrative and supervisory experiences within the system, designed to familiarize him with its administrative functions and problems. This program may be developed on a full- or half-time basis, accompanied by appropriate university training. Following the completion of the internship, the candidate becomes eligible for promotion to an administrative position.

TEACHER TURNOVER

The Problem

The stability of a profession is an important measure of its effectiveness. If there is frequent change of its membership to other lines of endeavor, or some indication by such change of dissatisfaction within the profession, there is reason to believe that there is need for professional adjustments in order to correct conditions which bring about excessive turnover. Teacher turnover refers to the extent of changes in the membership. A low rate of turnover in a school system indicates some measure of the stability of its staff and a corresponding feeling of security. A high rate of turnover in a school district points to insecurity brought about by conditions not conducive to maintenance of professional morale and satisfaction. Where rates of turnover are above 25 per cent annually, there is reason to suspect unsatisfactory conditions of some consequence.

Extent of Turnover

Since teaching is by and large a woman's profession, it is natural to expect a higher turnover for the reason that women marry and become homemakers. While the profession has made great advances in stability, the rate of turnover and mobility of all teachers is still too great. This statement holds true generally with the possible exception of large cities and more favored areas economically. More than a decade ago the extent of turnover was as follows: for all elementary teachers a mobility rate of one to five, which means that one teacher in every five changed his position annually. In open country one teacher schools, two of every five teachers were new annually; in two teacher schools and in small towns, one every seven years; in larger towns and small cities over 100,000, one in sixteen

years. About half of all teachers have been employed in two or more school systems during their teaching careers. All teachers averaged about fifteen years of service with little difference among elementary or secondary teachers.⁷

World War II has intervened since these data were released; there is little reason to believe that current figures would differ greatly. However, there is considerable evidence of greater stability and less turnover, although more reliable data are needed.

Causes of Turnover

One can easily gather from these data that the teaching profession has not yet attained the status of a lifetime calling. More than half of the annual vacancies in all school systems are caused by the departure of teachers to marry, to accept other teaching positions, or to enter another occupation. Actual causes of turnover are, in order: (1) marriage, (2) ill health or death, (3) retirement, (4) better economic return elsewhere, and (5) conditions producing dissatisfaction, such as ineffectiveness or low salaries. Other contributing causes are maternity, home conditions, continued education, emotional instability, and the armed services. The practice of most large cities in requiring one or more years of teaching experience before employment accounts in part for high rural turnover. As has been indicated, the greatest stability is found where the most desirable conditions prevail.

Teachers who change from one teaching position to another may be influenced by (1) higher salaries, (2) reduced teaching load, (3) better working conditions, (4) professional advantages, (5) greater security, (6) living at home, (7) dissatisfaction with policy or personalities, (8) urban advantages, (9) nonsocial contacts, and (10)⁸ dismissal for some reason, such as inefficiency or reduction of staff.⁸

Significance

The efficiency of a school system cannot be maintained under conditions where extensive turnover prevails; nor can teachers give

⁷ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Status of the Teaching Profession," *Research Bulletin*, March, 1940, p. 59.

⁸ Leo M. Chamberlain and Leslie W. Kindred, *The Teacher and School Organization*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949, pp. 239-247. See also William C. Reavis and Charles A. Judd, *The Teacher and Educational Administration*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942, pp. 456-462.

good service where constant change is the pattern. By and large, the pupils suffer in both instances. A high percentage of teacher withdrawals necessitates a corresponding high percentage of replacements which normally will be inexperienced teachers. Where a profession turns over completely its personnel within a decade, it can hardly be expected to assume a high degree of respectability as a profession. The unfairness of it all appears when it is realized that those teachers who remain relatively stable in their positions usually carry the load of professional advancement in that school system. Naturally, we must have youth with their vigor and enthusiasm, but every teacher should remain long enough in one position to imbibe the professional spirit and loyalty, and become an asset to the system which employs him.

Remedies

Much has been done in recent years to correct these evils. Salaries are advancing to higher levels; teaching and other conditions are improving; the profession of teaching is reaching new heights; and security and welfare are now most advantageous to all teachers. Competent married women teachers are being retained whenever possible. Consolidated schools are replacing rural schools, more advantageous to both teachers and pupils. Better leadership is helping the failing and dissatisfied teachers. The automobile enables teachers to travel longer distances while living at home. The tendency to use teaching as a stepping stone to other positions is disappearing. Tenure has replaced the annual contract, and formal retirement laws and social security make teaching more secure. These are definite evidences of decreased turnover and greater professional status.

SPECIAL ADJUSTMENTS TO TEACHER SHORTAGE

From time to time conditions arise which bring about a shortage of teachers to which adjustments must be made. Such a condition existed during and following World Wars I and II. Studies which have been made by the National Commission for Teacher Education and Professional Standards since 1940 as well as earlier studies have pointed out graphically the nature and extent of this shortage.

Our interest at this point is concerned with administrative adjustments due to teacher shortage. The following appear to be widely practised: (1) increasing size of classes, (2) readjusting sub-

jects with some or all of the pupils, (3) assigning teachers to subjects in which they are unprepared and/or uncertificated, (4) increasing teaching combinations, and (5) increasing the teaching load. Constructive measures have been utilized in many places to increase salaries, improve supervision, encourage in-service education, develop morale, and retain as many teachers as possible within the system. Wise personnel administrators will maintain a list of available personnel in case of the unexpected shortages and emergency situations.⁹

MAINTAINING MORALE

Definition

Directly associated with the many aspects of administration adjustment of staff personnel is the necessity for maintaining the morale of the staff. Morale is not easy to define, but its absence is easy to detect. It may be defined as a mental attitude which leads one to subordinate his personality for the good of a larger group. It is a vital force which enables one to attain his greatest prowess willingly in a common cause. Morale is usually associated with individuals and manifested in terms of confidence, courage, and the "will to accomplish." Group morale may be thought of as group attitudes expressed in some such terms as the above. Group morale may be characteristic of a number of associated individuals, although the individual morale of a few may be low. We speak of morale as "high" or "low."

Morale is a significant "building force" in any organization. It seeks to utilize the abilities of all for the welfare of the whole. Morale is an essential accompaniment of success in any form. Its connotations are positive with its results measured in accomplishments, either individual or group. Morale generally results in satisfactions through human relationships. Its implications are psychological and should be approached as such.

Measurement of Morale

Since morale is so essential in staff personnel administration, it is essential that methods be utilized in order to have some adequate

⁹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Personnel," *Review of Educational Research*, June, 1949, p. 208.

measure of its nature and effectiveness. Remmers¹⁰ has given us five methods of determining morale. These are (1) the "listening in" or general impression method, in which impressions are gathered by all those in contact with personnel and cleared through a central office or individual; (2) unguided interviews, in which persons are encouraged to talk freely, in order to reveal the true situation with themselves or others; (3) guided interviews in which key individuals are interviewed through a series of carefully prepared questions designed to reveal a given situation; (4) question blanks, previously prepared and submitted to large groups requesting both information and opinion; and (5) attitude scales—objective or measures of attitudes either specific or more general in nature.

While these measures have value in application, many superintendents are content with first hand and/or hearsay observation. Over the years they may have developed policies and practices which they apply to situations in which they believe morale to be low. Too often, however, superintendents are too far removed from actual situations regarding their personnel to become interested in any objective approach to the problem. Often a serious situation is permitted to develop which might have been mollified with a little foresight.

Relationships

Policies motivating relationships of a superintendent, principal, or personnel officer may be of three types. The first is characterized by the superintendent who has an autocratic, domineering, attitude toward his staff. He may be motivated by his own deficiencies in leadership or by an inflated sense of his own importance. Fear is the usual response of the teacher. The second type is best characterized by the superintendent who follows rather than leads. His behavior is one of neglect, ignorance, little or no influence, and laissez faire in outcomes. He leaves the solution of problems as far as possible to the members of the staff themselves and seemingly is content with results if nothing happens. Happy is he when there is a convenient "whipping boy" available to be used if necessary. The third type is the true educational leader who considers his staff as human beings and displays toward them an attitude of interest, friendliness, sym-

¹⁰ H. H. Remmers, "The Analysis of Employee Attitudes," *Proceedings of the First Personnel Institute*, Columbus, O., Ohio State University, 1938, p. 4.

pathy, understanding, and direct action. The staff has the feeling that "something happens" when he is about.

The basic relationships of a superintendent of schools with his staff may be different with men than with women. There may be differences due to age and level of instruction or activity. Cooke¹¹ has identified five such relationships: (1) father-daughter, where older superintendents and young women teachers are concerned; (2) mother-son, older women with younger men; (3) brother-sister; (4) husband-wife, involving complete support without question; and (5) sweetheart, in which each endeavors at all times to be at his best. Any value of such a classification may depend on circumstances. In some instances it may be useful in developing morale; but as a sound guide it is questionable.

Incentives

The maintenance of good morale depends, first of all, on the establishment of the right relationships with each member and all groups of the staff. When these are established, incentives should be provided. Among the most helpful are: (1) recognition of the individual personality of each staff member, (2) developing self-confidence in each member, (3) developing a sense of security, (4) encouraging creativeness, (5) developing ways and means of expressing appreciation, (6) establishing good working conditions, (7) eliminating worries and unhappiness due to maladjustments wherever possible, (8) rewarding good work through promotion, salary and/or professional advantages, (9) being considerate and just.

Holmstedt points out five factors which may contribute to the development of teacher morale: (1) establishing administrative policies which will bring about an absence of fear and insecurity; (2) providing good working conditions, (3) establishing democratic administration procedures; (4) encouraging the individual teacher's constant professional readiness and growth, and (5) recognizing good work and giving due praise and other rewards when and where it is due.¹²

It should be pointed out that the maintenance of good morale is

¹¹ Dennis H. Cooke, *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, Chicago, Benjamin H. Sanborn & Company, 1939, chap. 1.

¹² William C. Bruce, ed., "Staff Morale and the School Board," *American School Board Journal*, July, 1950, p. 48.

as much the responsibility of the professional staff itself. Too often, teachers are responsible for their own conditions and do little to relieve them, either individually or as a group. As teaching grows in professional strength, morale will thereby increase. Much can be learned from business and industry as to reliable methods employed.

Things to Avoid

It is well to mention certain things that should be avoided in maintaining good morale among teachers. Among these are favoritism, treachery, double-dealing in any manner, violation of confidences, disinterest in certain individual teachers, domination by fear, injustice, and violation of rules and regulations as well as established principles of codes of ethics. While these may be implied in previous paragraphs, they are given emphasis because they appear all too often. In developing morale, the wise administrator senses situations before they arise and applies common sense and good practice at all times.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Examine the literature on leaves of absence and classify references found under the several types of teachers' absence discussed in the chapter.
2. Obtain a set of leave of absence regulations from a selected school system. Examine it for good administrative practice. What suggestions can you offer?
3. Write a policy for all types of leaves of absence for a selected school system. Defend your plan in the light of good practice.
4. Write up a plan for substitute teachers to be presented to a board of education for adoption. Defend it.
5. Why is the transfer of teachers one of the most difficult administrative personnel problems? Illustrate by specific instances.
6. Examine the literature for examples of unwise personnel practices pertaining to teacher transfer.
7. List some of the problems involved in teacher promotion.
8. Make a five-year study of a selected school district in regard to teacher turnover. List the causes in order of significance.
9. What are the principal causes or conditions contributing to teacher shortage? What remedies would you propose?
10. Study a selected school system for indices of morale. What are your findings? How would you set about to improve morale of teachers?

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PART IV

*In-Service Improvement
of Teachers*

The In-Service Improvement Program

THE teacher education function may be divided into two well-defined areas. The first of these is the preservice education of the teacher. This is the responsibility of the teacher education institution and is based on a definite program leading to some form of teacher certification and fitness for a particular educational service. Increasing standards of preservice education do not necessarily lessen the need for continued in-service education. It is difficult for many laymen to understand why so much consideration must be given to the further education of the teacher after he enters the service. With changing conditions, only continued study and development, while teaching, will enable teachers to meet new problems. No amount of time spent in college or university will complete the preparation of the teacher; much must be learned as he teaches.

There is an ancient tradition still held by some that teachers are born and not made. There are those who accept without reservation the trite saying that he who *can* does, he who *cannot* teaches. These concepts would, indeed, be depressing were it not for the fact that the modern educator realizes the need for an intensive in-service program of education for all teachers, partly in order to break down the control of tradition and outworn practices and partly to build up in each teacher new concepts in education and a creative approach to the problems of the classroom and the profession. Moreover, educators realize the tremendous lag that exists in education, in that educational practice is often much behind the best in theory, and that there are so many newer developments in American life and

culture as to make essential a continuing growth in service of every teacher coordinated with a constantly revised educational program.

This chapter is the first of two that will be devoted to the in-service teacher improvement program. It will point out (1) the changing emphasis in education to which teachers must be adapted; (2) the purposes of in-service improvement; (3) the responsibility for in-service improvement; (4) the focus of attention; and (5) organization for improvement in service. A later chapter will consider types of in-service improvement, problems associated therewith, and some attempt at evaluation.

CHANGING EMPHASIS IN EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Low Levels of Preparation for Teaching

In an earlier chapter the social and economic origins of teachers have been vividly presented. Fifty years ago little was demanded of a teacher prior to entering the service in the way of preparation. Many teachers had not even a high-school education; others had a brief period in normal school or college. This was particularly true of rural teachers and those in smaller communities. Some of these teachers may still remain in the classroom; many have improved themselves while teaching. Four decades ago Coffman¹ described the typical teacher as one who entered teaching at nineteen with but four years of training beyond the elementary schools. While the turnover of teachers four decades ago was extremely high, many of our older teachers now in service entered teaching about that time. Three decades ago Yeager² pointed out that large numbers of elementary teachers came into teaching as high-school graduates with but a few summers of teaching beyond that level, completed largely while teaching in service. During the late 1920's, nearly all of the states revised their certification requirements upward. More and more teachers came into the profession with a two year normal preparation or equivalent. The college-prepared teacher gradually became conspicuous; but with the vast turnover of teachers, both men and women, teaching too often became a procession. Many of the modern pro-

¹ L. D. Coffman, *The Social Composition of the Teaching Population*, New York Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education no. 41, 1911.

² William A. Yeager, *State Certification as a Factor in the Training of Elementary Teachers in Service*, Kutztown, Pa., Kutztown Publishing Company, 1929.

fessional aspects now essential in the preparation of the teacher were lacking. Both world wars took a toll of teachers in service. Salaries were low. In some communities schools were closed because there were no teachers available. Emergency certificated teachers were retained. Even in 1950 in one state (Pennsylvania) there were nearly 1,000 teachers on emergency certificates out of 61,000 reported.

Since the typical teacher in the United States is now middle-aged, with many in cities being teachers well above that age level, it is obvious that many teachers now in service came into the profession when standards were low. College graduation is becoming the accepted educational level, and the teacher with the master's degree is slowly emerging.

Rise of Supervision

The development of the supervisory function was the first effort to improve the mass of untrained teachers. The development of the office of the superintendent of schools gathered momentum, whose many duties included the employment, examination, and supervision of teachers. The methods most commonly employed by him in improving teachers were classroom observation (inspection) and teachers' meetings. Most of his time was spent in these activities with assigned duties required in some instances by law. In larger cities the function was delegated to supervisory assistants. The superintendent, himself often lacking in training, learned much from the better teachers. He did his best in the way of conferences, summer study, and visiting lecturers. Elsbree³ goes so far as to state that the establishment of the city superintendency is perhaps the greatest achievement of the nineteenth century, especially in its effect on the science of education, teacher growth, and the educational program.

Development of the Profession of Teaching

Two developing factors have had an important influence on the in-service improvement of teachers: (1) development of the professional emphasis on teaching, and (2) development of the profession of teaching. The growth of the normal schools and schools of edu-

³ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939. The student will find chap. 14, "The Development of Supervision," stimulating reading.

tion, as well as departments of education in liberal arts colleges, is a phenomenon in American education. Emphasis was laid on educational psychology, child study, history of education, student teaching, methods of teaching. Subject matter was professionalized. Teachers in service returned to summer schools and part-time courses in huge numbers. These professional courses were written into certificate laws and were required of all teachers. Teacher associations placed great emphasis on teaching as a profession. The National Education Association, parent body of many organizations, is less than a century old. Public attitude toward teaching changed as teachers became more professionalized in status and competency. Gradually the impact of an internal stimulus for improvement in service began to come in evidence, fortunately, through many activities on the part of the teachers themselves. This is perhaps the most hopeful indication of improved professional status.

Inherent Nature of Teaching as a Basis for a Program of Improvement

Inherent in teaching itself are factors apart from its educational status which require attention in the in-service improvement program. Teachers are subject to great strains, worry, frustration, and pressures. Conditions within the system are responsible for some of these. Teachers may be poorly placed, unhappy in their work. Young teachers may not be getting along well. The teacher's health may not be of the best. The necessity for relaxation is quite often overlooked in providing release from these tensions. The very act of teaching requires a heavy demand on teacher energy, especially if classes are large and conditions unsatisfactory. The cultural growth of many teachers is lacking, particularly in regard to world-wide affairs, good music, and better reading. Many teachers have submissively accumulated additional course credits without assimilating their significance, or applying what they have learned to their daily work. Enthusiasm for teaching is sometimes lacking because of a feeling of lack of appreciation. A similar lack of enthusiasm pervades the use of many devices for teacher improvement when scheduled on what the teacher feels is "his time." Because of these conditions together with a measure of economic and social insecurity, due to low salaries and high turnover, many teachers have not attained that inward incentive so necessary to individual self-improvement.

ORIGINS OF METHODS OF IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

There are seven methods in in-service improvement of teachers which have persisted through time, although modified in form and of varying usefulness in a modern program.⁴ The first of these is the teachers institute which was first begun in Hartford in 1839. Without doubt the teachers institute has been the most widely practised and most influential method which has stood the test of time. Its influence on later developments has been highly significant. Reading circles date from 1874 and grew out of the Chautauqua movement. They were of great value in encouraging teachers, especially rural teachers, to become professionally prepared through selected literature. Recommended lists of readings are an essential part of any program. The third method was that of correspondence and extension courses which originated in England about 1867. The plan came to America in 1883 and was widely adopted. The essential emphasis was on home study. The Chautauqua movement was a powerful stimulus in developing the summer session program. Wisconsin had the first summer session for teachers in 1887. Since then summer schools have spread far and wide and emphasize many courses specifically adapted to teacher education. The fifth method in common use is supervision. This movement grew up as a lay function and probably dates from the first superintendencies at Buffalo and Louisville in 1837. The development of supervision has been described above. Sabbatical and similar leaves of absence date from 1908. They are coming into prominent use through favorable legislation. The seventh and perhaps most promising plan of teacher improvement in service is the workshop movement, dating from 1936. It began with the Progressive Education Association eight-year study. The significance of this movement will be discussed in a later section.

PURPOSES OF AN IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Turning now to the development of actual programs for the in-service improvement of the members of the staff, the purposes of the program should be set forth. These purposes should be found within the needs of staff members themselves. Although there are common purposes which may pertain to all teachers, individual

⁴ Joseph Lins, "Origin of Teacher Improvement in Service in the United States," *Journal of Educational Research*, May, 1945, pp. 697-707.

needs and concerns should receive first consideration. This section will examine nine possible purposes in any program.

Orientation of Teachers

The in-service improvement program is concerned with the orientation and proper adjustment of two groups of teachers: (1) inexperienced younger teachers entering teaching for the first time, and (2) experienced teachers either entering the system for the first time or transferred from another school or division. The orientation procedure has been fully developed in an earlier chapter.

Health and Vitality of Teachers

The maintenance of a healthy and vigorous staff is of fundamental importance in an in-service improvement program. Attention has been called to the factors inherent in teaching which affect the teachers' health. Weber⁵ places the necessity for biological vigor high among the basic assumptions for evaluating techniques in improvement programs. Two aspects of the health program for teachers should receive consideration: (1) physical health and (2) mental health. Positive factors receiving attention in the program should be (1) health examinations and follow-up; (2) better environmental conditions; (3) artistic nature of the teacher; and (4) emotional balance. Obstacles to good health to be removed are (1) lack of recreation, (2) frustration, (3) occupational insecurity, (4) inadequate financial return, (5) lack of wholesome relationships, (6) unsatisfactory living conditions, (7) pressures of any sort, and (8) lack of professional spirit and unity. Any one or more of these have an influence on both physical and mental health. In large measure they are concerned with the individual teacher.

Improvement of Environment

The contrasts in teaching environments in the public as well as private schools of the nation are well known.⁶ Teachers tend to be happy, interested, contented, cooperative, and more competent in an environmental situation where desirable working conditions prevail.

⁵ C. A. Weber, "Basic Assumptions for Evaluating Techniques Employed in Secondary Schools for Education of Teachers in Service," *North Central Association Quarterly* July, 1942, pp. 19-27.

⁶ For a good discussion see William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, The Dryden Press, 1951, pp. 75-77.

The reverse is quite as true. The in-service improvement program should be concerned with bringing about a wholesome environment and satisfying working conditions for both teachers and pupils. Among the essentials receiving consideration are the physical environment both within and without the school, as site, playground, landscaping, beautification, halls and corridors, decoration, observance of days and weeks appropriate to clean-up, etc., pictures, shelving, movable desks, working materials, heat, lighting, ventilation, and civic pride. These will suffice although there may be many others. Some of these will require board and administrative action; others may be within the control of the individual teacher or the principal and his teachers. It is always well to bring the pupils within the endeavor whenever possible.

Improvement of the Educational Program

The improvement of the education program of the schools is essentially a professional matter within the framework of the state and county. There are usually minimum essentials as to the program and its specifics. The adaptation of that program to a specific community and a particular school is a professional function in which every teacher has a part. Perhaps there is no better way to demonstrate the principle of democratic cooperation than in improvement of the educational program. Ways and means include studies of the community, studies of pupils, workshops, cooperation with state, county, and council committees and groups, group committees, building committees, consultants, and others. These will be discussed in a later section.

Improvement of Group Instruction

Closely related to the improvement of the educational program is the improvement of group instruction; in fact, better instruction should proceed along with intensive group study of the program, to which we might add the improvement of the teaching environment. The improvement of group instruction should have some focus of attention. It may be state- or county-wide as in adapting new instructional procedures to a new course of study. It may be city-wide as in planning and adapting a new course such as safety education, vocational education, consumer education, religious instruction, and a program of school activities. It may be adapted to a particular school

for experimental purposes, such as a revised program in reading, individual instruction, adaptation of groupings, and exceptional children. Again, it may cut across schools and be concerned with commercial teachers, English teachers, or social studies teachers. Workshop techniques are probably the best means available for this phase of the in-service program.

Improve the Efficiency of the Individual Teacher

While the effect of the improvement program carried along one or more of the lines suggested above may result in benefit to individual teachers, the program itself should be individualized to the extent that the needs and interests of each teacher should receive consideration. Three groups of teachers may be concerned: (1) the "failing" teacher, (2) the "acceptable" teacher, and (3) the superior or creative teacher. All of these teachers may be concerned in a group program of improvement; however, the problems of the individual member of the staff may be lost sight of unless attention is focused on them. If for instance, the teacher may be failing because of disciplinary problems, worry, heavy assignments, poor health, or poor preparation, his case is an individual one. Attention should be paid after proper diagnosis to causes of failure. Many "acceptable" teachers become routinized after a period of teaching, are dull and unresponsive, and tend to become critical and unelastic. While causes may differ the means employed to stimulate should be individually adapted. Creative teachers are intelligent, well educated, highly sensitive, and professionally minded. Conditions should be such that the fine edge of artistry is retained and developed. In fact, potentially acceptable teachers should be encouraged to grow with creative teachers.

Individual teachers should be studied in terms of personal deficiencies. This may be due to deficiencies of preparation as general education, or professional knowledges, skills, health, fear, insecurity, and social maladjustment. The social outlook of the individual teacher should be improved for its effect on individual teaching and its relation to competency.

Developing Morale

Morale is described as a neutral condition concerned with courage, zeal, and confidence. It has both individual as well as group con-

notations. Indeed, the high morale of the group may serve to improve the low morale of one or more of its members. Morale is highly volatile, that is, affected by sudden changing conditions such as a change in leadership or policy, or a depressing situation. Morale is best achieved through intelligent leadership, democratic means as cooperative efforts and relationships, professional unity, social and economic security, feeling of success, recognition of effort, confidence through accomplishment, and the stimulus of belonging to a group enterprise. Morale is best expressed through a happy nature, personal vigor, working with a will, getting along with people, courage in action, self-confidence, and a subordination of self in the common cause. This subject will be treated more extensively in a later section.

School and Community

A program of in-service improvement for teachers should include an improvement of the relations of the teachers and the community. There are many occasions in which the activities of a teacher become issues in the community, such as his religion, political views and applications, teacher-pupil and teacher-parent conflicts, where he lives, how he dresses, his personal life, community attitudes toward teachers in general, married women teachers, patronage, academic freedom and professional self-respect.⁷ The influence of any one or more of these may have a direct bearing on teacher efficiency and morale, and cannot be ignored. Perhaps much can be accomplished through cooperative action, as with parent-teacher associations, and community councils.

Developing Creative Teachers

All of the purposes of an in-service improvement program might well be summarized in one purpose—the in-service development of creative artistic teachers. "As is the teacher—so is the school," a maxim of common acceptance, might be paraphrased as "As is a good (creative, artistic) teacher, so is an efficient school." The focus of all improvement in-service programs should be on this endeavor to develop in all teachers those features of creative artistry which provide lasting influence on all pupils through the educational processes. It is an undertaking of challenging proportions.

⁷ For a good discussion of these, see Yeager, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

Good administrative policy locates the responsibility for the performance of the administrative function. With responsibility goes authority, with some measure of evaluation of the services rendered. In regard to responsibility for in-service improvement, five agents have been developed: (1) the state department of education, or a division in it (including the county as the agent of the state); (2) educational institutions; (3) the school district or local administrative agency; (4) cooperative relationships among teacher groups; and (5) individual teachers. These will be considered in turn.

The State

The state is concerned with in-service improvement of staff personnel along two lines: (1) the administration of activities that have to do specifically with the teacher education function, and (2) the administration of the certification function. These functions are administered through the state department of education. In addition, the department as well as professional associations within the state exercise leadership with respect to laws and regulations which directly or indirectly affect the in-service improvement of all staff personnel.

Since education is a state function, the educational level in any state is closely geared to the minimum educational requirements mandated for that state, and generally prevalent throughout. Here and there there may be an "oasis" of high level education; if so, it is the exception rather than the rule. Consequently, by raising minimum educational requirements, the general educational level of all teachers is thereby raised. For example, a state may raise the minimum education level for entrance into teaching to the bachelor's degree, thereby establishing a standard of attainment for *all* teachers in service, many of whom will strive to attain it.

The state's chief interest should be in its teacher education program and the institutions which are a part of the state school system or accredited by it. The state may promote a general educational improvement program through which all institutions participate. Some division of labor may be allocated. For example, single institutions may attack specific problems of teacher education, thus serving all the interests of the state.

The Commission on Teacher Education identified several outstanding state programs of teacher education in-service which are fully described in its volumes.⁸ These were planned cooperatively with institutions and state agencies.

The state may provide supervisors and consultants on call. They may bring together teacher groups to prepare curriculum materials, instructional units and techniques, study of resources, focused on pupil problems. Researches undertaken by a state agency may provide stimulation for teacher interest and growth, as studies of age-grade, drop-outs, juvenile delinquency, and exceptional children. The state may provide bulletins, pamphlets, courses of study, and similar materials which help the teacher in his work.

Teacher certification is a state function. The close relation which certification bears to the teacher education function has been pointed out previously. It is the function of the state department of education to administer the certification regulations in accordance with legislative or other mandates. The issue of a certificate then is a major form of control over the teacher's preparation. Following issuance of a certificate, teachers in-service come within the orbit of state control at several points. These are (1) renewals of certificates, (2) making certificates permanent, (3) extension of scope of certificates, (4) revocation of certificates, (5) credit basis, (6) measure of efficiency as rating, (7) approval of in-service programs, (8) approval of substitutes for credits or other requirements for further certification, and others. Most of these apply to teachers in service. For example, in one state in order that a provisional college certificate may be made permanent, evidence of three years' successful teaching experience is required to be submitted on a rating form provided by the teacher division and subscribed to by the proper supervisory officer, together with six semester hours of additional approved courses. This means that both the institution giving the courses as well as the courses themselves must have preapproval. Similarly, extension of certificates to any area as a guidance counselor or school psychologist, require submission of specific types of approved courses taken as a part of a mandated pattern. Since experience is required as an accompaniment

⁸ See especially Commission on Teacher Education, *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1946, chaps. 11, 12.

to many of these extensions, the additional training is taken while the teacher is in service.

Two fundamental precepts have always been recognized in salary schedule procedure, namely additional preparation and experience. Thus, if a teacher advances to a higher level of preparation, he is entitled to receive the benefits of the salary scale which pertain to his experience status. In one state, for instance, legislation was enacted indicating the master's degree as the optimum preparation level of attainment for all teachers, and, as an incentive, guaranteed each teacher so attaining this level an additional annual salary of two hundred dollars.

Many state departments provide incentives for growth in service along other lines. They may call together groups of teachers and administrators to consider revision of certificate regulations with recommendations. They may prepare plans for in-service improvement of teachers on a regional or local level. They may provide consultative service to local districts in upgrading teachers and implementing state programs. They may collaborate with educational institutions, school boards, and key individuals in revising state programs of teacher education.

The dangers inherent in the "credit" system upon which our teacher education and certification systems are based are quite apparent. Where the attainment of the educational objective becomes one of amassing the appropriate number and distribution of "credits" on a piecemeal basis, as is typical of many teachers in service, there would appear to be too great emphasis on the "credit" attainment, and too little on educational development. Thus the education so attained may become superficial, unrelated, and even, according to Learned,⁹ "devastating," especially if the teacher is uninterested and the course is taught on a mass-production basis. Teacher education institutions should cease the tendency to "pack as many in as the room will hold," limit all teacher education classes to not more than forty, provide good instruction, and individualize the instruction as far as possible. If the institution finds it impossible to accomplish these objectives financially, then the state should subsidize its

⁹ The student will find William S. Learned, "'Credits' versus 'Education,'" *Proceedings of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York*, revealing, to say the least.

teacher education sufficiently to accomplish this desired end, or the institution should discontinue its teacher education activities.

The Teacher Education Institution

Colleges and universities approved as teacher education institutions are playing an increasingly important part in the in-service improvement program. A state's teacher education program must of necessity be implemented through these agencies. They should be encouraged to set up programs in accordance therewith, and work closely with the department as the program proceeds. Care should be taken not to accredit any program which does not fully meet standards of excellence.

The course program of the institution is the principal educational service rendered to teachers in service. By means of courses and workshops scheduled at times when teachers can attend, such as after school hours, evenings, Saturdays, and during the summer, teachers are enabled to meet certificate requirements and otherwise improve their educational status.

Most institutions provide follow-up services with their teacher graduates. This is accomplished through individual conferences, teacher and supervisory reports in which they indicate difficulties and offer suggestions, consultation service, workshops, and return visits to the campus for observation and conferences. Olsen found that fully one-third of all teacher education institutes make available for teachers some type of additional experience with the philosophies, procedures, and problems of community centered education.¹⁰

Other techniques and services found in operation under the auspices of teacher education institutions are (1) publications, (2) workshops, (3) research activities, (4) correspondence courses and materials, (5) clubs, (6) personal conferences on call, (7) visual aids, (8) staff participation in local teachers' in-service programs, (9) radio programs, (10) demonstration school activities in which a program is especially provided for regional teachers in service, (11) assistance in curriculum planning, and many others.¹¹

¹⁰ E. G. Olsen, "National Survey of Teacher Education in Community Study Techniques," *Educational Record*, 1943, pp. 421-435. For a good analysis of difficulties of recent graduates and how one state sought to meet them, see "Preservice and In-service Training of Elementary School Teachers," *Educational Monograph*, Albany, New York State Teachers' Association, August, 1932.

¹¹ Mildred A. Dawson, "Practical In-Service Teacher Education," *New Forms of*

Commission on Teacher Education Study

Perhaps the most exhaustive and valuable study of state programs applying to both preservice and in-service education of teachers was made by the Commission on Teacher Education.¹² Substantial support was provided selected institutions in several states in order to develop these programs over a three year period. While they were planned and conducted by local committees, there was a close oversight by state department officials. Emphasis was laid on the study of problems of teacher education in the state. Three areas were developed: (1) the general education of teachers, (2) professional education of teachers, and (3) education of teachers in service. In the latter area, Kentucky emphasized the relation of the college to the community, while Georgia stressed the importance of building school leadership. Democratic procedures are stressed throughout with emphasis on the continuity of the programs and the improvement of teachers through a better education.

Local Responsibility

The impact of any state or regional in-service program for teachers should be felt in each local school district. Perhaps the program has little value unless such an influence takes place. Unfortunately, as the Commission on Teacher Education pointed out, centralizing forces which are met "with patterned responses from the schools have tended to interrupt and weaken a good deal of the planning that formerly took place at the grass roots."¹³ Here is a condition that needs careful consideration as it applies to teacher education in-service. Naturally, we must look to the state for leadership in the over-all development of education in general and teacher education in particular; however, well-developed local plans of in-service teacher improvement may be interrupted, if not completely overshadowed, by state or regional programs that may be of little or

*In-Service Teacher Education, Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II, National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching, 1943, pp. 16-18; also, L. F. Hadsall, "The Extension Activities of Certain Publicly Supported Institutions in Assisting Teachers In-Service in Elementary Science or Nature Study," *Science Education*, 1936, pp. 7-11. See also extensive bibliography, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 1950, pp. 1422-1423.*

¹² Commission on Teacher Education, *op. cit.*

¹³ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Education in Service*, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944, p. 486.

no significance locally. The problem, then, is to preserve the local stimulus and at the same time encourage state and regional leadership as companion goals, each contributing to the other and to the whole.¹⁴

Local administrative leadership for the in-service improvement program may be exercised at three points: (1) the county or region, (2) the city or district, and (3) the individual school. In those states where the county (intermediate) is the administrative unit and where state laws place certain responsibilities upon its administrative officials, county-aided in-service programs should be initiated and developed under county leadership. The peculiar problems of the county or the study and application of newer techniques may be a point of departure. Occasionally a study of problems may be stimulated by a foundation or other agency and administered through a state or a university as illustrated by the Sloan Foundation projects in Kentucky, Florida, and Vermont. The purpose of these projects has been to raise living standards through instruction in schools and through changes in the school curriculum. The teacher plays a vital part in this program.¹⁵ Since many educational problems are peculiar to a geographical region, there have been cooperative efforts to study them on a regional basis. The Southern States Work Conference is illustrative of this movement. Regional programs for the in-service improvement of high-school teachers have been developed in the Southern states with good results.¹⁶

Large cities maintain well-organized staffs of trained personnel with major responsibilities for teacher improvement in service. Supervisory personnel may have definite assignments by districts, schools, and for groups of teachers. Curriculum and research divisions may set up committees, workshops, group conferences, and other techniques to improve the curriculum and stimulate teachers to better service. In smaller cities, an elaborate organization is not likely to prevail. Much will depend on the superintendent or assistant if any, in cooperation with the supervisors and principals.

Since the "principal in his school" is coming more and more to be

¹⁴ Compare the plan used in Virginia, *ibid.*, p. 489.

¹⁵ Consult "Applied Economics," New York, Pamphlets of the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.

¹⁶ G. E. Snavely, "A Short History of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools," *Southern Association Quarterly*, 1945, pp. 424-549.

recognized as the unit of administration in any school system, there is much to be said for his leadership in teacher improvement in service. Two significant factors have aided in the development of this movement: (1) the increased professional education and advancement of the principal, and (2) his gradual release from clerical and routine duties so that there is time for such leadership.

Cooperation Within Staff

It is of major significance in teacher education when programs for improvement in service can be developed cooperatively with the staff members and more significant when the stimulus for such development arises within the staff itself. Four reasons may be given for this development: (1) higher levels of teacher education enable teachers to sense and attack their own problems; (2) lengthening teacher tenure stimulates greater professional interest; (3) teachers are learning more and more about group techniques; and (4) administrators and supervisors are coming to realize that better results can be achieved through cooperative action.

There are many ways in which this cooperative relationship is manifested. There may be local study groups, workshops, local conferences, and committees. There may be informal meetings merely to exchange experiences and ideas. In all cases, the basic form of organization is a smaller working group entrusted with a fairly specific task or problem. Time may not be too greatly emphasized as the group proceeds, nor the importance of arriving at a final decision, except where advisable. Emphasis should be placed on social relationships, getting acquainted, utilizing all available resources, group thinking, and an avoidance of hasty and ill-advised action. The very nature of the problems requires that the group seek new sources of information, explore the thinking of every member, and appraise at every step the suggestions offered. Two stages of advancement may be indicated: (1) where the emphasis is on the study of the problem in which a decision may or may not be indicated, and (2) where the decision may lead into further action of some sort, through implementation.

Responsibility

The responsibility of teacher groups for improvement in service may be located (1) somewhere within the school system such as (a)

a particular school or group of teachers (elementary) or (b) within the local teachers' association; or (2) it may be sponsored by a professional organization of wide scope, as a county or state teachers' association, or even one of national or international scope. Teachers of a building may want to work cooperatively about mental hygiene, use of community resources, understanding the world community, or furthering their own professional status. The local teachers' association may study problems of retirement, new legislation, or activities of the state or national education association. State programs for the professional development of teachers are developing rapidly. In one state a program is sponsored by the Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, which annually sponsors a group conference for the study and implementation of programs of teacher education. At the fourth conference, discussion groups were organized around eight areas, most of which pertained to improvement in service.¹⁷ On the national level, the movement is sponsored by a similar group. One of the recent conferences stressed the growth of teachers in service with the "challenge—to the profession to assume direct responsibility for the growth of its members toward maximum competency, and therefore, toward maximum services to children."¹⁸

School policies councils, while ordinarily concerned with administration matters, may initiate activities which pertain definitely to the in-service improvement program. Of the proposals summarized by the Commission on Teacher Education which form the activities of these councils, the following definitely relate to in-service: study of pupils, records, curriculum, content and policy, utilization of community resources, instructional procedures and aids, guidance, supervision, home study, and pupil health. In fact, it would be difficult to isolate activities of any such council which would not have some bearing on the improvement of the staff.¹⁹

¹⁷ P.S.E.A. Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, "Probing Professional Problems," Fourth Annual Conference, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, 1951.

¹⁸ National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, "The Teaching Profession Grows in Service," Washington, D.C., The Association, 1949, p. 5.

¹⁹ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Education in Service, op. cit.* Chap. 3 is devoted to the work of school policies councils.

The Individual Teacher

Since the strength of a profession ultimately lies in the individual strength and competence of its members, each individual teacher should seek to grow in professional service through his own stimulation and efforts. All of the agencies described above may have little avail without wholehearted individual response. On the other hand, external stimulation and even pressure may provide the spark needed in a teacher to strive for further growth.

Each teacher should approach his improvement program with an analysis of his own strength and weaknesses. In this he may be assisted by supervisors or others. Once aware of his deficiencies, he may prepare a course of action designed to correct them. One approach to improvement is to raise one's educational level through course offerings. Such a program may lead to salary betterment, promotion, or administrative positions. A teacher may take an active interest in the professional organization, understand its program, promote its policies, and seek positions of leadership. A teacher may broaden his cultural and social outlook through reading, travel at home or abroad, social activities, cultural activities as music and art, club and church life. A teacher may broaden his outlook through exchange teaching. He may find it necessary to give attention to his health and biological vigor through medical attention, outdoor activities, and rest. The problems of the school and the classroom may prompt the need for child study, individual research, the teaching program, collections of teaching materials, home visitation, and professional readings. Alert teachers can find many ways to initiate improvements in the school system, being limited only by the range of their vision and a reluctant administration. Since many teachers find it advisable to supplement their salaries through other means, it is logical to suggest that outside activities selected and experiences gained thereby, if continued, ought to contribute in some measure to a more wholesome classroom situation.

FOCUS OF ATTENTION

In administering a program of in-service improvement, care should be taken to keep sharply in focus the larger educational objectives of the school system. Activities conducted under so many different auspices and with a wide variety of purposes may fail to

contribute directly to the purposes for which the school exists. The child himself is of primary consideration: his growth and development, his individual differences, his home, his interests, attitudes, and potentialities. The powers of each child must be awakened within him; his individuality must be nurtured. In fact, the success of each teacher is best measured by the number of children he has inspired to better things. Following this approach the teacher must know himself and understand his task as a teacher in terms of the child. His improvement as a teacher should be in terms of the child, for to improve others, one must first improve himself. A third focus of attention is his staff relationships. Every teacher should realize that his task is best accomplished in working with others. The focus of all administrative direction ought to be toward teacher self-improvement and teacher cooperation and ultimately toward child growth and development. Supervision is not an end in itself but a means to an end. The improvement of instruction likewise is not an end in itself but a means. In understanding the community and society at large, the teacher should realize the significance of the school as a part of it, the importance of change, and the responsibility toward community betterment.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Show by concrete illustrations how the changing social emphasis on education has affected the in-service education of teachers.
2. Compare in parallel columns through a study of the literature the work of a supervisor in three periods of time.
3. What is the relationship which teaching as a profession bears to its improvement?
4. What are the inherent factors in teaching that require improvement in service? Illustrate.
5. Examine the purposes outlined for improvement of teachers. Relate them to a given group of teachers.
6. How would you proceed to set up an in-service improvement program in a selected district?
7. What are the characteristics of the in-service improvement of a group of teachers as compared with individual teachers?
8. Rank in order the problems of a selected school district around which an in-service program could be developed.
9. Appraise the effectiveness of a selected state's improvement program.

10. Describe a plan which has been developed by a selected teacher education institution for in-service improvement of teachers.
11. What is the most effective method to improve teachers in service? Defend your position.
12. Study carefully the section on "Focus of Attention." To what extent does it add to the value of the chapter?

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Types of In-Service Improvement

IN THE previous chapter, emphasis was laid on the purposes of and responsibilities for the in-service improvement program for teachers. In this chapter, it is proposed to present several types of teacher in-service improvement with suggestions for their development and use. Supervision in some form is the oldest form of in-service improvement. In a sense, it may be said to include many other means used. However, many of these instrumentalities are so diverse and specific in their application and usage as to demand specific treatment. Among those discussed in this chapter are (1) changing concepts of supervision and its organization, (2) institutes, meetings, and conferences, (3) professional reading, (4) state-sponsored activities, (5) teacher education institutional activities, (6) local administrative devices, (7) demonstration teaching and intervisitation, (8) activities associated with the community, (9) activities associated with the profession, (10) leaves of absence and exchange teaching, (11) workshops, and (12) travel.

CHANGING CONCEPTS OF SUPERVISION AND ITS ORGANIZATION

Earlier Emphasis

Supervision is the oldest form of in-service education of teachers. It first appeared as an inspectional routine in which committees of laymen visited the schools, inspected the physical plant and facilities, and used crude methods to examine the pupils and the teachers. Because they were laymen and more often ministers, it is obvious that the results of their inspections did little to improve instruction, unless the occasion itself motivated the teacher to better teaching.

With the appearance of the superintendent of schools more than a century ago, these inspectional routines became his responsibility. He improved somewhat on the methods used and the results he achieved were in contrast to his own philosophy of education and his skill as a supervisor. Fifty years later special supervisors emerged to supplement the superintendent. As this became their principal responsibility, they were able to give more and more time to the task.

Three Stages

Supervision has passed through three stages. The first of these is inspectional, in which the layman observed such external aspects of the classroom situation as he understood from his limited experience and required improvement in accordance with his preconceived notions and the demands of his community. A second stage emerged when the in-service training became necessary to compensate for their inadequate preservice training. This responsibility could best be accomplished through direct classroom observation, and thus became a professional function of the superintendent and supervisor. Supervision is now conceived as a process which has for its purpose the general improvement of the total teacher-learning situation. It directs attention towards the fundamentals of education and orients learning and its improvement within the larger objectives of education and the needs of the learners. Supervision is always concerned with social change, and the adaptation of the schools to it. Good supervision is always concerned with the development of the teacher, the growth of the pupil, and the improvement of the teaching-learning process.¹

Administrative Organization

The administrative organization for supervision depends largely on the philosophy of the supervisor and the purposes to be accomplished.² It may be authoritarian, vested in a person delegated this

¹ Compare John A. Bartky, *Supervision as Human Relations*, Boston, D. C. Heath & Company, 1953. He identified seven types of supervision as follows: autocratic, inspectional, representative, cooperative, democratic, invitational, scientific, and creative. These are not necessarily mutually exclusive; rather separate phases of supervision in which the whole process may partake of one or more of these phases (p. 14).

² The student will find a more complete account of the administrative organiza-

responsibility through a line-and-staff organization, and other persons to whom specific duties are assigned. It may be cooperative in which line-and-staff supervisors share with teachers and others the functions of supervision. While the leadership may reside in those supervisors responsible for the function, every effort is made to provide motivation for teacher growth through these shared responsibilities. A third plane of supervision may be developed through leadership from within the staff itself, through teacher councils, teacher committees, and similar groups arising out of the teachers. As these three stages are considered in turn, the concept of supervision seems to have undergone a complete change, until from it we could now substitute a more appropriate term, *teacher growth*.

INSTITUTES, MEETINGS, AND CONFERENCES

One of the striking characteristics of the teaching profession has been its emphasis on the continued education of the teacher, while in service. Large groups of teachers did not have the advantage of a normal-school or college education and entered teaching with little professional training. Teachers remained but a short while, because of low pay, unattractive conditions, and lack of facilities. Much teaching was wretched at best, superintendents and principals could visit but occasionally, and knew little concerning methods of improving its quality. The principal plans for improving teachers in service were group methods, in which the teachers' institute emerged as the earliest form. Teachers' meetings can be traced over many years, out of which group conferences and their by-products have emerged. These will be discussed.

Teachers Institutes

The teachers institute, originating in 1839, is generally credited to the influence of Henry Barnard. Its purpose was to bring together groups of teachers for the purpose of further instruction in "pedagogics" and supplementary education generally. The plan proved so popular and effective that state authorities soon recognized its significance, making it mandatory by law in some form, and providing financial support. The teachers institute became a means of bringing about greater unification and solidarity among the teach-

tion for supervision in A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, *Supervision*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947, chap. 3.

ers and the schools. By the turn of the century, institutes were in general use throughout the United States.³ By 1922 forty-four states were using teachers institute in some form, being maintained by law in most of them. They were held at various times, during the school term, before and after the term began, and on Saturdays. The length of the institute varied from a few days to as long as six weeks.

As teachers became better educated for their tasks and supervision better developed, the teachers institute received less and less emphasis, especially in the cities. County institutes still retain their popularity. In modified form they still exist in many states. Other plans have been substituted for the institute, as conferences, meetings, and workshops. The interesting thing to note is its persistence as a means of in-service improvement after a century and a quarter.⁴

Improvement of the Institute

One of the noteworthy characteristics of the teachers institute has been the constant emphasis on its improvement. Writers especially since 1911 have pointed out changes in its purposes and ways and means to improve it. Those who predicted its demise have been startled by its renewed vigor in other forms. Many studies have emphasized improvements, no doubt because of teacher dissatisfaction. However, it still remains upon the statute books of many states.

These efforts to adapt the teachers institute to the modern problems of the classroom teacher have resulted in marked changes in its purpose, structure, and program. The following purposes are receiving emphasis: (1) to understand education as an integrated social institution in a world-wide society, (2) to emphasize constantly its professional aspects, (3) to acquaint teachers with newer developments and materials in education, (4) to provide social contacts through the strength of larger numbers, (5) to become acquainted with outstanding personalities, and (6) to find some bases for the satisfaction of common interests.

³ William C. Ruediger, *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*, U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin no. 3, 1911, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1911. See also J. H. Smart, *Teachers Institutes*, U.S. Bureau of Education Circular of Information no. 2, 1885, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1885. See also National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 1922, p. 1142.

⁴ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chaps. 13, 25.

The structure of the teachers institute has changed considerably. While the "mass meeting" has been retained, greater emphasis is on groups organized around common problems and interests. Democratic procedures have characterized the formulation of the program. Teachers participate through group discussion techniques. They have a voice as to policy through selection of speakers, topics, leadership, and appraisal. Adaptations are made to elementary as well as secondary teachers, teachers of large and small schools, subjects taught, special areas, and teachers with varying years of experience. There is a free exchange of ideas, constructive thinking, and an opportunity to study common problems in a sympathetic atmosphere. As long as these characteristics are maintained, the teachers institute in some form, whether by the same or some other name, will probably remain for a long time.⁵

Local Teachers' Meetings

Meetings of large groups of teachers for purposes of general professional improvement should not be confused with local teachers' meetings, characteristic of a school or a school district. Such meetings are of traditional origin and have prevailed through many years. As in the case of the institute, purposes have changed as the schools and personnel have changed; yet there appears a striking persistence in the fundamental characteristics of teachers' meetings in common practice, despite the criticism of teachers themselves and the writers of a copious literature.⁶ Three types of teachers' meetings may be identified in practice, each identified largely in terms of its major purpose: (1) for administration and routine purposes; (2) for supervisory and general professional improvement; and (3) for social purposes. Teachers' meetings may also be identified according to the groups included, as elementary teachers, sixth-grade teachers, departmental or subject-matter groups, and teacher-parent groups.

Administrative Meetings

The administrative meeting may include all or a part of the staff. Matters concerning the school in general should have a place in such

⁵ Charles A. Sherman, *Attitudes of Pennsylvania Teachers Toward Teachers Meetings Called by the County Superintendent*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1944.

⁶ For a good bibliography on teachers' meetings, see George C. Kyte, *The Principal at Work*, Boston, Ginn & Company, 1952, pp. 302-304.

a meeting, such as administrative policies, the school organization, routines, important information, and school-community relations. The time of teachers for meetings of this sort should not be taken if the same accomplishments can be achieved through a bulletin, house organ, or noticed on a bulletin board. Some kind of cooperative action might well be characterized a part of each meeting called for administrative purposes. These meetings should be called infrequently, be carefully planned, and of short duration.

Supervisory Meetings

The supervisory meeting has for its primary purpose the improvement of instruction through the improvement of the teacher. While such meetings may be planned cooperatively, the administrative and supervisory staff have the primary responsibility as to arrangements and procedure. Group interests and needs should be characteristic. As the meeting progresses, group processes should appear in action and outcomes reached determined by the same process. Perhaps no such meeting is really successful unless each teacher feels that "something really happened to him." All such meetings should be conducted on a high professional plane with due attention to the interests and needs of individual teachers or groups of teachers. The suggestions offered for the conduct of teachers institutes may apply here.

Social Meetings

Social meetings of teachers should have a place in every school program. These should be wholesome social and recreational gatherings, seeking to develop acquaintances, mutual understanding and appreciation, and friendliness. Such meetings may be in the form of teas, receptions, luncheons, and dinners. Each such meeting should be an occasion with a definite objective, such as to meet the new teachers, celebrate an anniversary, honor a colleague, or meet the members of the board of education. These gatherings should contribute to morale and general good feeling. They should be planned cooperatively and be held only so often as that they constitute an "occasion."

Factors and Outcomes

In planning teachers' meetings the following factors should be stressed: (1) clearly defined purposes, (2) cooperative planning, (3)

clearly defined program, (4) group procedures, (5) group action, (6) individual and group needs met, (7) professional significance, and (8) some social emphasis. The time when teachers' meetings are held will depend largely on local conditions. Preference is usually given for scheduling on school time as the last period on Mondays, or early in the week. After school meetings should be just as acceptable and valuable if teachers come to feel their professional significance. Occasional evening meetings are desirable where the emphasis is one of sociability and where one can be at his best. The duration of a meeting should seldom be more than one hour, depending on the purpose and the topic under discussion, unless it is an evening social affair. The frequency will again depend on local conditions. If a new procedure is under discussion, frequent meetings will be determined by accessibility of those participating, unless influenced by some factor as a demonstration lesson. Surroundings should be attractive and relaxing. Needless to say that meetings should begin and close on schedule with some intermission for relaxation if more than fifty minutes in length. Careful planning is essential, with good will and a professional attitude prevailing at all times.

The outcomes of teachers' meetings might be summarized as follows: (1) mutual interchange of ideas on the part of every person, (2) relaxation, (3) development of better human relations, (4) some sociability provided for, (5) emergence of leadership from within the group, and (6) professional advancement noticeable.⁷

PROFESSIONAL READING

One of the earliest methods of improving teachers in-service is the "reading circle." It seems to have originated in London about 1870 and came to Massachusetts in 1873. The Chautauqua movement greatly stimulated the formation of reading circles, spreading to many states. The Bureau of Education⁸ estimated that in 1887 at least seventy-five thousand teachers in the United States were reading methodically and systematically books bearing upon professional subject matter and general culture.

⁷ Wiles has outlined twenty-four specific suggestions for the improvement of teachers' meetings (Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950, pp. 174-176).

⁸ Report of the Commissioner of Education 1886-1887, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1888, vol. 1, p. 405.

This movement was closely associated with teachers institutes and other such professional developments. Many uses have been found for professional readings, as (1) a prescribed course of study upon which examinations were based, (2) supplementary professional reading in methods, content, and general culture, (3) an introduction of new books and techniques, and (4) stimulation of teachers toward constant improvement while teaching. Many states have provided for reading circles upon which examinations are held, certificates issued, and/or credits given.

In general, it may be said that reading circles have lost their former professional significance. Lists of books of both general and professional nature, however, are still recommended by teachers' institutes and other professional organizations. Of greater value to teachers is the common practice of most professional magazines of publishing and reviewing new books as they appear from the press. Many school systems maintain a library of professional literature, available to all staff members. The supervisory staff should be thoroughly familiar with pertinent books, magazine articles, and reports as they appear. Local teachers' associations and faculties should have a professional literature committee whose duty it is to identify professional literature for teachers with reviews and digests in teachers' meetings or through bulletins or other means. Through such means busy professional people can keep abreast of developments in many fields of interest.

STATE-SPONSORED ACTIVITIES

On the state level, there are significant means for improvement in service of teachers sponsored by the state department of education or state professional organizations. Several of these will be presented.

State Certification

State controls over the education and licensing of teachers have been discussed in a previous chapter (chap. 6). The levels of educational preparation are determined both by statute and state regulations. The original issue of a certificate is generally based on credentials submitted by and accepted from accredited educational institutions. Renewals or permanent certificates may be based on the submission of additional credentials certifying to courses completed subsequent to the issue, and taken by the teacher while in service.

The same practice holds for the extension of a certificate to include other forms of teaching, as an additional subject. The state may also require additional evidence of fitness where a certificate has lapsed or for any reason there is evidence of the need for further qualifications.

State-Sponsored Programs

A movement of considerable significance in teacher improvement in service is associated with state-sponsored programs for curriculum development, secondary school evaluation, pupil population studies, and the like. A state curriculum study, for instance, may have two phases which stimulate teacher improvement: (1) through state-wide committees who develop it originally, and (2) through the formation of local conferences and committees who adopt it for community use. The secondary-school evaluation movement has undoubtedly been the most stimulating development within recent years in the improvement of the secondary school and its teachers. This program calls for an evaluation of a high school every five years. State educational associations have been instrumental in conducting similar studies on a state-wide basis. These are helpful not only in teacher improvement, but in fostering general professional interest.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONAL ACTIVITIES

The activities of educational institutions in teacher improvement in-service may be classified as follows: formal course programs (1) geared to meet degree and certification requirements, (2) designed for professional improvement of individual and group needs of teachers, and (3) designed for cultural betterment. Since most of these courses are taken at times other than during the normal teaching day, opportunity is offered through late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes during the regular school year. Summer sessions are provided by most teacher education institutions and are popular with many teachers, especially where they provide recreation and social diversion with study under leisurely conditions. There is also opportunity to collaborate with friends, meet outstanding instructors, engage in workshops and other forms of group effort, and possibly travel, if the institution is remotely situated.

Off-Campus Courses

The university extension movement⁹ is one of the oldest forms of teacher improvement in service, beginning about the turn of the nineteenth century. It took various forms, such as off-campus lectures, traveling libraries, correspondence courses, and study clubs. So far-reaching was the movement that it was generally termed the "university on wheels." Since about 1910, there has been a marked change in the character and scope of university extension. Courses have been standardized with university credit attached for degree or certification purposes. Efforts have been made to secure some equivalency with regular campus offerings, with state department of education oversight and approval.

Similarly, correspondence study has had a significant development as a means of improvement in service, especially for those who are unable to profit by campus or university extension. So great has been the universal interest in correspondence study that the home study principle has been applied to almost every known field of cultural and occupational endeavor, even in the study of law. Outstanding in correspondence courses in the field of education are Midwest universities, such as the University of Wisconsin.

These off-campus means of instruction have been a significant factor in teacher improvement in service. Sponsored by a university, they have been encouraged by state departments, teachers' associations, and administrators and supervisors. Many practical courses developed around the needs and problems of teachers can be made effective. Supervisors and principals can coordinate their own supervisory program with courses specifically adapted to local conditions. A series of projects may be undertaken in sequence with local experimentation and adaptation. Workshop techniques are now being utilized in stimulating teachers toward group participation and action, and have been the means of encouraging many teachers to raise their professional level.

Objections to the off-campus courses have centered about (1) lower standards, (2) lack of library facilities, (3) poor instruction, (4) poor teacher response, especially where there is enforced at-

⁹ The reader will find a brief account of the university extension movement in Elsbree, *op. cit.* chap. 27. See also Lyman P. Powell, "Ten Years of University Extension," *Atlantic Monthly*, September, 1901, p. 395.

tendance and lack of adaptation, and fatigued teachers, and (5) lack of direct association with the educational environment of the institution which offers the program.

The off-campus course program is widely used in teacher in-service improvement. It may take the form of extension courses, summer session attendance, after school courses, and/or travel which includes study. Such requirements may be a part of a state's certification regulations. Inducements of many types are held out for such improvement, as bonus payments, direct financial aid, payment for the course, additional salary, promotion, and leave of absence with certain advantages. The necessity for some supervision of the individual program selected by the teacher should be considered, so that a reasonable return in professional competence is secured to the school district as well as the teacher.

Informal Means of Teacher Improvement

Teacher education institutions sponsor many other activities designed for professional improvement in service to teachers and school systems in general. A movement of considerable importance is the "follow-up" service to graduates, usually during the first year, and occasionally beyond. The strengths and weaknesses of graduates are observed, and supervisory assistance given with collaboration with local supervisory staff. Many institutions are sponsoring teacher conferences on the campus as on Saturdays, with teaching demonstrations, followed by group discussions and individual guidance. These conferences extend to many types of school problems. They emphasize newer procedures and include all groups of the school staff, even parent-teacher association leaders and members. Such conferences may be held on school time, more often during the summer session.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE DEVICES FOR TEACHER IMPROVEMENT

Written Materials

Administrative bulletins have come into common use as an economical means of communication with the members of the staff within the school system without the necessity of calling a meeting. They may be addressed to staff members generally, or to specific groups as elementary teachers. They may pertain to any number of

topics, for general information, directions, specific professional helps, tests and diagnosis, or any specific branch of the educational service. Because of ease of duplication and distribution, they are extensively used.

Remembering that clarity of expression should be one of its chief characteristics, bulletins and all directional materials should be concise, easily understood, brief, adequately treated, and sufficient in scope. Two types of bulletins will be easily identified, (1) those having some degree of permanent interest and value, and (2) those of temporary concern only. If the former, some attention should be given to sequence, with date, code, and page number, or other identification for filing purposes. This suggests a good quality of loose-leaf cover or filing system, adequate for the purpose and easily identified for reference. Needless to say, bulletins should be legible, on good paper, well written, uniform as to form and style, and with a copy for each teacher.

Bulletins intended for temporary use ordinarily do not receive the same attention as those of a more permanent variety. It is doubtful if individual copies of bulletins "handed about," with or without acknowledgment, receive adequate attention.¹⁰

Supervisory bulletins and similar materials have many uses within a school system. The following are illustrative: (1) source materials, accompanied by resource units, leaflets, booklets, etc., (2) helps with special teaching problems as outlines of demonstration lessons, learning difficulties, teaching methods, visual aids, and (3) professional aids, including references to articles, directed readings, newer developments, etc. These materials are likely to be helpful to the degree that they bear specifically to the teachers' problems.

House Organ

Industrial management has long made use of the house organ as a means of reducing the distance between employees and management, and to make up for the lack of close personal contacts. The house organ is ordinarily considered to be more comprehensive in scope than a bulletin. It appears regularly. There may be little uniformity as to editorship or nature of its contents. It may be edited by the superintendent or a member of his staff, or by a group of prin-

¹⁰ For a good discussion of bulletins, the reader is referred to Kyte, *op. cit.*, chap. 17; and Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, *Supervision, op. cit.*, pp. 726-730.

pals or teachers. It may include signed articles, studies, illustrations, directions, research problems, notices, reviews of professional books, timely articles, appreciation sketches of staff members, and any similar information likely to prove of interest to all staff members. It may be distributed outside the staff membership as to board members or interested parents.

The teachers' handbook belongs under this general classification, being a document variously known as a handbook, manual, directory, or book of procedures. It usually contains organized information on many aspects of the school, including courses of study and rules and regulations of the board and the administrative staff.¹¹

Printed Aids

There would appear to be no limit to the availability of printed and similar materials for distribution within a school system, and useful in administrative and supervisory programs of in-service training. Alert individuals in charge of this program search out and make available all such materials from many sources. Single copies may provide a problem as to distribution and filing. Care should be taken to assist the teacher in finding appropriate usefulness of these materials.

Staff Assignments with Reference to School Program

The administration of the educational program provides many opportunities for in-service improvement. Foremost is that of curriculum development. The curriculum should be under constant scrutiny and improvement, with committees of teachers working together. Many plans have been developed for the improvement of the curriculum, both on the state as well as the local level, and which have been described in a copious literature.¹² Teachers can work together in selecting text books and instructional materials. Arrangement of the school schedules offers many opportunities for teachers to understand the educational program and adapt it to pupil needs. Of especial value is participation in the testing program involving

¹¹ The reader will find a more complete discussion of house organs and the handbook in William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, Dryden Press, 1951, chap. 7.

¹² See Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, *op. cit.*, chap. 13, especially the bibliography, pp. 659-660.

the construction and administration of achievement tests. Teachers may be encouraged to become more familiar with testing procedures through courses and workshops.

Research Activities

Each school system should be under constant observation through a careful examination of its practices and procedures. Individual and group studies by staff members may be made of many educational aspects, especially those which have a definite relationship to pupil progress. Such studies might include promotions and failures, drop-outs, adaptation of curriculum materials, individual differences, and many others. Educational surveys, either self-surveys or those conducted by a disinterested group, have great significance in stimulating teachers to study their school systems and learn acceptable techniques. The use of consultants has been found of great value in improving the staff and the school program. The growth of school study councils is an interesting newer development, in that it encourages individual staff participation in studying their own problems. Teachers can be encouraged to participate in experimental studies, individually or under the direction of the school system, or more likely sponsored by a college or university. In all practices of this character, both the teacher and the school benefit.

Committee Assignments

Many of the activities indicated in the preceding pages may be administered through committee groups working under direction or through their own initiative and organization. To administer through committees is an established procedure in American education, perhaps because a small working group can accomplish more than a larger unwieldy assembly. Usually, a committee is assigned to perform a specific task, ceasing to exist when the occasion is achieved. The improvement of personnel through assignment of this nature is too often lost sight of. Many teachers list committee assignments to study school conditions as the most significant of in-service improvement techniques.

Since we are here concerned with the committee as a means of in-service improvement, some suggestions are offered for its improvement. Each committee should have a specific goal assigned to it by a larger group to which it is responsible. Membership on the

committee should be composed not only from those best fitted for the purpose, but those in need of stimulation and further training. Free exchange of ideas unhampered by supervisory oversight ought to characterize its deliberations. There should be full discussion with varying points of view and full recognition of minority opinions. Leadership should be permitted to emerge at any point, with consultative advice, assistance, and materials provided as needed. There should be time to meet and prepare the report followed by full and sympathetic hearing of its contents. Democratic procedures should characterize its final acceptance or rejection.

Examples of committee assignments are selection of textbooks, school policies as promotion, marking system, salaries, community projects affecting the school, development of educational philosophy, and testing programs.

Exhibits

School exhibits have ordinarily been promoted as a school-community relations device in order to interest parents; however, their value as a teacher improvement technique has been often overlooked. A carefully arranged exhibit of each pupil's work is an excellent measure of the progress of each pupil and the effectiveness of the teacher. Such an arrangement should include a sample of his work at the beginning of his assignment to that teacher, followed by examples of step-by-step progress in the same area at intervals. In this way each pupil can be taught to compete against himself. The work of every pupil should be exhibited, not just that of the superior pupils. Perhaps the effectiveness of good teaching can be best measured by those who show the greatest amount of progress. This fact should be readily interpreted to parent and public alike. Exhibits should be arranged under the direction of committees of teachers, with pupils assisting.

Other Administrative Devices at the Local Level

The ingenuity of the educational leaders and the circumstances of the occasion will be determining factors in providing further opportunities for teacher improvement in service. To this end every advantage should be taken to provide both the environment and the device which will bring about the desired stimulus for growth. Opportunities may center around the school plant, working conditions,

educational program, materials of instruction, personality problems, learning, teaching procedures, the library, and so on. Individualized instruction offers many opportunities. Newer techniques, such as radio and television, challenge the imagination. Teacher evaluation through rating procedures offers a challenge of great significance which must be accepted wholeheartedly by the teaching profession before it can become effective. Democratic living within the school and community on the part of both teachers and pupils is an educational problem requiring each teacher's best efforts. Teachers can cooperatively engage in the evaluation of their school, both on the elementary and secondary level. Teachers can seek conferences with supervisors and others in order to understand their own problems. Teachers can make contributions to the educational literature and engage in experiments of many kinds.

In the last analysis, much will depend on the teacher's attitude toward his own improvement, assuming that the teacher is convinced of the great profession in which he is engaged. He must be willing to improve in it and seek ways and means to this end. He will begin by understanding himself, and seek to improve at his weakest points. Perhaps he needs more knowledge, greater skills, better morale, more industry, better understanding of children, greater insights. Whatever he needs, he should show a willingness to begin and accomplish something in the way of his own improvement. By and by creativeness emerges in the most unexpected situations. Little successes beget more successes. Confidence is gained and the creative artist appears. It may take a long while but the rewards are many and satisfying.

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING AND INTERVISITATION

Learning through observation is a well-established method of acquiring skills in any occupation. It has come into general use in the preparation of teachers and has many uses in improving teachers in service. Two forms of teacher improvement to be discussed are demonstration teaching and intervisitation. These have value for both teachers of little as well as those of considerable experience.

Demonstration Teaching

Demonstration teaching may well serve two purposes. In the first place, it can be planned to convey the desired standards of instruc-

tion, such as approved principles and teaching practices. The emphasis should be on the educational process as a whole, so that the teacher carries away a general understanding of the level of attainment he might strive for. In the second place, the demonstrator should convey specific information as to the teaching process to be observed, such as methods of teaching, teaching devices, classroom management, instructional materials, and techniques for evaluation. Demonstration teaching should lead to the correction of weaknesses, self-analysis and self-criticism, through supervisory assistance and supplementary in-service techniques.

Demonstration teaching can be administered in many situations. Demonstrations can be arranged at teacher education institutions. They can be arranged within a particular school for the benefit of a small group of teachers. A supervisor or a selected teacher can provide a teaching demonstration within the local school system in order to emphasize certain matters. They can be arranged in the presence of large or small groups of teachers.

Kyte points out six steps which should be followed in demonstration teaching. These are (1) determining the specific needs of the teacher to be met by the demonstration, (2) preparing the teacher to observe the demonstration with profit, (3) preparing the demonstrator to present competently the desired demonstration, (4) guiding the observer of the demonstration, (5) establishing the desired development, and (6) following up the demonstration.¹³

Good demonstration teaching should convey at the outset its specific purpose. It should seek to solve a problem and exemplify a natural situation as far as possible. Neither teachers nor pupils should be under stress. The demonstration should be thoroughly planned and carried through accordingly. The pupils should be benefited rather than harmed thereby. The teacher should evaluate the experience in terms of his own needs, with the thought that demonstrated techniques and standards can be attained in his own situation.

Intervisitation

Every program of teacher improvement in service should include some plan for intervisitation of teachers. Teachers may be permitted one or two days in order to visit other school systems to observe the

¹³ Kyte, *op. cit.*, chap. 18.

school and teaching procedures. Schools may be dismissed for the purpose. More inexperienced teachers may visit superior teachers within the school system under the direction of the supervisor.

Ordinarily, intervisitation is not as effective as demonstration teaching due to haphazard and ineffective planning. To make it more effective careful planning should be made along lines suggested above for demonstration teaching. A definite purpose should be kept in mind in all visitations. Specific questions should be made the basis for an evaluation, such as, Is the demonstration providing desirable learning situations? Do the pupils show initiative? Do they work together in a socialized situation? Are individual needs being met? How is the teaching experience being evaluated? All teachers should be required to prepare reports on their visitation and demonstrate in turn some improvement in service. Individual and group conferences can aid in pooling visiting experiences for the benefit of all.

TEACHER IMPROVEMENT THROUGH ACTIVITIES ASSOCIATED WITH THE COMMUNITY

Education has a vital place in the improvement of community living. As society increases in complexity and its problems increase in intensity, the role of education becomes more and more significant. As education has as its task both the transmission of the cultural heritage and its improvement and its adaptation to social change, the school should be an integral part of the life of the community and have its program well adapted to it.¹⁴ It follows then that the teacher should be closely identified with the pulsating life of the community in which he teaches, understands its problems, and seek constantly to improve democratic living in it. Some of the activities of the school which are associated with the community and through which the teacher may improve in service will be presented in this section.

School Attendance

The administration of the attendance function offers many opportunities for the teacher in understanding the pupils, the home, and the community environment. Many such opportunities are available through taking the school census, following up pupils in unlawful

¹⁴ For a good discussion of this point of view see Yeager, *op. cit.*, chap. 24.

and unexplained absences, making studies of pupil attendance in relation to scholarship and other factors, and studies of pupil employment. The teacher has a definite role in securing better attendance, (1) as to his legal responsibility to keep records and enforce attendance regulations, and (2) in his direct responsibility to teach well, to make school interesting, and to prevent absences due to disinterest and failure. An attractive school environment enhanced by the pleasing personality of an understanding teacher will do much to attract children to school and to eliminate nonattendance before it occurs. The same responsibility extends to good administration of the attendance function. Much can be done in cooperation with the home and youth-serving organizations in the community.

Home Visitation

An effective community school by its very nature offers many contacts with the home through teacher visitation. Mention has been made of home contacts through the attendance function. Other home contacts can be made where the health of the pupil is the principal concern, or in bringing about a better understanding of his educational progress through face-to-face contacts. The pupil can be better understood in his home environment, especially in regard to those conditions which influence his progress. The services of social agencies available in many communities can be secured for valuable assistance along many lines.

Special training for home visitation and service has been recognized by states and cities through certification regulations and in setting up qualifications for home and school attendance personnel. Emphasis is placed on social work, psychology, and techniques of the interview. The function of the visiting teacher is to bring about a healthier, happier relationship among the pupil, his home, and his school. Occasionally, it is necessary to deal with the courts as in truancy and juvenile delinquency. The significance of this service is recognized when it is pointed out that nearly all criminals began their unfortunate careers as truants and delinquents, which in turn were occasioned by factors of home and community environment, many of them remediable.¹⁵

¹⁵ Consult Paul W. Tappan, *Juvenile Delinquency*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949, esp. chaps. 5, 7, 14.

Study of the Community and Its Resources

Contacts with the home will naturally lead the teacher to study it, the community life, its people, institutions, and its resources. Communities may be classified into seven basic types: rural, hamlet, village, town, small city, middle city, and metropolis. Each of these represents diverse population characteristics. Communities may also be classified according to their occupations, such as agriculture, mining, textiles, or residential. Again, communities may be characterized in accordance with their social living, that is social classes, institutions, ideals, and traditions.

Teachers should know much concerning community living, along these lines, and more especially as the educational program can be better related to the boys and girls who live in it. Studies of the community should be centered around some purpose, as its health factors, public safety, occupations, and recreation. Community resources should be studied as to their availability in the educational program. These might include the municipal government, political life, public buildings, social cleavages, industries, business and cultural life, and laboratories. Field trips and excursions can be arranged to take the children into the community. Social change should be recognized in all of these manifestations. Pupils can take an active part in community betterment, such as safety and clean-up campaigns, recreational facilities, health conditions, and beautification. The interest of adults and social institutions can be secured to further the community betterment movement cooperatively through such agencies as the community workshop and the coordinating council.

Public Services

Within the community there are many opportunities in which a teacher might render public service. These provide for teacher growth especially along lines of community leadership. Abilities such as public speaking, group leadership, and organization can be developed. Perhaps the greatest outcomes of community leadership are in increased respect, personality, professional responsibility, and cultural and social advancement developed in the teacher as well as increased respect for and confidence in the schools.

TEACHER IMPROVEMENT THROUGH ACTIVITIES ASSOCIATED WITH THE PROFESSION

Each teacher has an individual responsibility to advance the profession of teaching. At this point it is well to review the specific principles which underlie the profession of teaching which have been discussed in chapter 1. These refer not only to pre- and in-service education but also to the social significance of teaching and its ethical considerations. Many activities are available within the school system and the profession at large which enable the teacher to grow in professional service.

State and National Associations

The National Education Association and its allied bodies represent every variety of professional outlet for staff members. While membership in the parent body is expected, it is hardly possible to retain membership in more than a few of the member organizations. Hence some selection will need to be made. Attendance upon professional meetings is highly desirable with participation at every opportunity. Such participation can take the form of panel membership, interrogators, speakers, committee assignments, social activities, and research. State associations present similar opportunities and provide a wide range of activities which can be associated with regional or local endeavors. Care should be exercised not to become overly ambitious personally, to the detriment of one's position, and risk of the loss of respect of one's fellows. Classroom teachers may find it difficult to attend distant meetings due to the time of meeting or expenses of travel. Delegates usually have a portion or all of their expenses paid.

Contribution to Professional Literature

Professional activities of staff members should progress to the point where creativeness eventually emerges; in fact one test of superiority in teaching is originality in some form. The teacher who constantly evaluates his experiences in terms of improvement will ultimately discover and apply new knowledges, methods, skills, outcomes and other aspects of his work. It is a professional rule that his contributions should become an integral part of the profession in some form, for the benefit of all. One of the best ways this can be

done is through contributions to professional literature, such as magazines, reports, and books. Since many teachers have a certain timidity in this respect, perhaps because they do not know how to write or to whom to turn for advice, administrative officials, state professional leaders and university instructors might give assistance both in writing and in securing a publisher. The programs of educational associations offer an outlet for creative endeavors through addresses, panel discussions, and committee assignments. Many great leaders in education have secured initial recognition in this manner.

Group Professional Opportunities

The approach to cooperative group planning within the profession should begin with a pervading philosophy emphasized by the administrative and supervising staff and shared by all its members. This philosophy should encourage teachers to share with each other and with pupils and parents the responsibilities of planning the work of the school, introducing changes in procedures, and evaluating professional progress. Such a philosophy should contribute to group morale and individual self-respect.

In-service education should provide ever-increasing opportunities for teachers to develop those abilities essential in order to assume responsibilities for professional leadership. The teacher should feel that he is a co-worker in the educational enterprise, that his ideas are respected, and his activities noted. Since we are here concerned with professional advancement, teachers should be encouraged to engage in activities which may be associated with the state or regional educational association and its local branches. In these organizations, there are abundant opportunities for participation in activities which will advance the profession and develop thereby educational leadership.

EXTENDED LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Types and Purposes

The in-service improvement of certain teachers may require more extended leave of absence than a brief period as discussed in an earlier chapter. Such leave of absence may be granted to meet certain individual needs. It may include (1) sabbatical leave (usually after seven years) for professional improvement or travel, (2) ex-

tended leave for health, maternity reasons, civilian non-teaching employment, or family crises, (3) military leave, and (4) exchange teaching. Sabbatical leaves have been in practice for many years. These are arrangements whereby a teacher may be excused from service, generally for a period of one year, after several years of satisfactory service, to engage in study, travel, cultural stimulation, or in some instances for rest and recreation, perhaps in combination with one or more of the above purposes. The major purpose of the sabbatical leave is to provide the teacher opportunity for professional improvement, rather than reward the teacher for service rendered. Payments to the teacher during the absence may be as much as half-salary or more. Some school systems pay an amount equal to the teacher's salary less that of a substitute. Provisions for sabbatical or other extended leave are now common in larger cities and are permitted by law in many states. Teachers are expected to repay any amount received from the district if they fail to return to service upon the completion of the leave. There is general satisfaction in the effectiveness of extended leaves of this character, although there is little objective evidence to support it.

Extended leaves of absence for such purposes as health, maternity, family crises, or civilian employment are generally without pay. Certain limitations may be attached to the leave, as time of returning. Military leave is provided for both by law and local regulation and is generally liberal to the service man or woman.

Exchange teaching provides an unusually fine opportunity for teachers to render teaching service in other communities, both at home and abroad. The exchange teacher generally accepts the salary of the exchange position.

Policy

Since policies in regard to leaves of absence have been fully discussed in a previous section, they will be reviewed here briefly. In setting up a policy relating to leaves of absence, state laws and local regulations should be carefully examined for authorization and procedure. Matters pertaining to tenure, retirement, salary schedules, certification, and contract should be considered. All conditions of the leave should be carefully drawn up and fully understood by all parties. Care should be taken to provide competent teachers for those pupils whose teacher is on leave. In any program of extended

leave, constant attention should be directed toward the professional improvement of all members of the staff in the interest of all the boys and girls.

WORKSHOPS

Within the past two decades, a new group technique for the improvement of teachers in service has attracted wide attention and has been used on local, state, and national levels. This has been termed the educational workshop. While the term itself may mean different things to different people, it represents an attempt to apply the principles of "learning by doing" to teacher education, and at the same time apply well known principles of group planning and resulting action.

The workshop was developed during the 1930's through the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association, in which teachers participating in the study were brought together during a period of five to six weeks to exchange ideas, work out mutual problems, and confer with resource people to obtain new ideas.¹⁶ As a result of these early successes, the movement spread rapidly, being employed by regional, state, and national groups to encourage greater individual participation in the solution of common problems. It was felt that teachers should assume more individual responsibility for their own improvement in service. The workshop idea offered a promising solution.

Characteristics

Perhaps the workshop idea can best be defined in terms of its characteristics. Basically, the purpose of a workshop is to provide teachers (and others) an opportunity to work cooperatively in the solution of their common problems in an appropriate environment and with the assistance of competent resource persons and materials, under competent leadership. Since workshops are *problem-centered*, it is obvious that group interest is aroused through an intensive study on the part of those concerned in the *solution* of the problem. The procedure must be cooperative. Association of participants should be informal and sufficiently varied in order that diverging points of view may be focused on the problem and the participants' outlook be broadened thereby. While the satisfaction of the teacher

¹⁶ Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950, p. 165.

group may be achieved through the experience, ultimate advantage should accrue to the whole child, all the children, the whole school, and the whole community. Resource persons and materials are an essential characteristic of the workshop. They should be selected with care, available for assistance as needed, and generally subordinated to the larger group interests.

The principles of group dynamics operate in a well-conducted workshop. Each teacher and all the teachers makes a contribution. Individual results become joint results shared by all. Skills are developed through this group action with a desire to apply the process not only to the teacher's own situation but to the solution of other professional problems. Many types of creative activity are made possible through the workshop. A principal characteristic of a good workshop is the constant evaluation of results accomplished at intervals, not only as to the findings of the group but the creative progress of each individual teacher.¹⁷

Organization

Since the educational workshop may be conducted with both small and large groups, the organization should be adapted to the size of the group. Those responsible for the conduct of the workshop should have had some previous knowledge and experience with it, preferably through direct contact. Their reports and initial enthusiasms will serve to stimulate the latent interest of teacher groups. Small groups can then meet to learn more of the procedure and preplan. Preliminary groundwork of this character is of the utmost importance.

The next step is to secure authorization for a workshop and set up the necessary organization and procedure. The planning committee should be comprised of representatives of the administrative and supervisory staff, together with interested and enthusiastic teachers, and perhaps one or more outside consultants. Plans should be made as to who shall participate, topics chosen for study, time and place of meetings, budget, and routines. Every effort should be made to extend the initial interest especially for those in need of such experience.

¹⁷ Compare these characteristics with those outlined by Kenneth L. Heaton and others, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers, The Program of the Summer Workshop*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940, pp. 21-41.

In planning workshops, attention should be given to constant revision of plans and procedures. Care must be taken not to force a situation before there is sufficient readiness to act. Face-to-face contacts lead to group action in which interest is maintained and creative activity developed. The workshop should be carefully timed with full attention given to physical comforts and social relationships. Evaluative procedures should be provided at all stages. Distractions should be avoided and careful records kept. Care should be taken to see that the workshop pattern does not become too fixed in plan or operation. Change should be characteristic.

Advantages of the Workshop

The popularity of the workshop movement, as indicated in its utilization in many areas of teacher education in service, is evidence of wide acceptance and satisfaction. Coupled as it must be with the modern techniques of group planning and group action, it is perhaps the most significant movement of its kind in many years.¹⁸ It is based upon well-known principles of learning, such as readiness, a felt need, and democratic procedures. It employs new ways of working, such as group methods, individual problems, resource groups, expert leadership, community contacts, and writing. Through the study of his problems the individual is enabled thereby to develop individually, socially, emotionally, and professionally. Through the workshop, the members of the group can make constructive contributions to education which may have wide significance. Group attack on educational problems under good leadership and with adequate resources is its principal characteristic. The stimulus it gives to the individual teacher through procedures is as important as, perhaps more so than, the outcomes achieved.

Evaluation

The success of a movement through its popularity is one measure of acceptance, although it may not be evidence of its effectiveness. Evidences of its effectiveness as an in-service improvement technique might be gathered along two lines: (1) improvement in the edu-

¹⁸ Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, *op. cit.*, pp. 712. See also Earl C. Kelly, "Why All This Talk About Workshops," *Educational Leadership*, February, 1945, pp. 200-204; R. H. Erwine and W. G. Fordyce, "The Workshop and In-Service Teacher Training," *Educational Research Bulletin*, March, 1943, pp. 59-62.

cational program, and (2) improvement in the personnel. As to the program, evidence should be procedured as to how the workshop is organized, determination of needs, pertinence of problems, timing, use of democratic procedures, community contacts, resources used, and outcomes achieved. In evaluating the personnel improvement, consideration should be given to active participation of all members of the group, better teacher attitudes, improvement in resource persons as well as in leadership. There may be other evidences but these will suffice for initial evaluation.

Since the workshop is still in the experimental stage, there is great variation as to practice. Some workshops will be more productive of results than others. Poor workshops may bring about a negative attitude toward them, which may be difficult to overcome. Only by an objective "look" at such workshops can their weaknesses be observed and improvement brought about.

Techniques for the evaluation of the workshop have included (1) comments of "workshoppers," (2) critical analyses of trained observers, (3) distribution of forms in which participants are asked to compare changes in their reflections at the beginning and following the workshop experience, and (4) critical appraisal of supervisory officials as to improvements in teachers.¹⁹ While these are admittedly subjective in their approach, the workshop technique has undoubtedly contributed much to teacher growth. It will be constantly refined as its distinctive features are further developed.

TRAVEL

The education of a cultured gentleman of past generations was not considered complete without a certain breadth of refinement only achieved through travel. Travel is commonly recognized as a valuable experience which enables an individual to extend his outlook on life, increase his knowledge of ways of living, and intensify his appreciation for the natural wonders of the world. Because of the necessity for the expenditure of time and money, travel formerly was the prerogative of the privileged classes. With the advent of our common methods of transportation and the accessibility of far away places, travel is now a commonplace. In many countries it has be-

¹⁹ Compare appraisal techniques presented in *Teacher Education in Service*, *op. cit.*, pp. 227-241.

come a great industry, extensive in employment of persons, facilities developed, and income produced.

Travel has a peculiarly beneficial effect upon teachers and teaching. Individual teachers need generally a wealth of culture only achieved through travel. Wide associations with other people are easily translated into useful benefits in classroom and other professional relationships. Travel enables the teacher to vitalize instruction in every field of learning and activity. Through travel teachers are more effective in teaching geography, history, art, science, and other subjects. Travel gives the teacher a sense of security in knowledge, a warmth of feeling, and a breadth of outlook which in turn is radiated to the pupils and stimulates them in turn to learn more of other people. Historic shrines become realities, governments are studied firsthand, and the struggles of mankind for liberty and independence achieve a degree of reverence only through a wanderlust deeply ingrained in many people. Only he who has crossed the length and breadth of America can have a full and complete realization of America's greatness. This eventually may be enlarged to include a world-wide point of view through global travel.

Types of Travel for Teachers

For the teacher two types of travel may be identified. The first may be termed planned extended travel, usually associated with leaves of absence. Such travel may be carefully planned as a definite in-service improvement activity. It may be taken with or without university credit. Some institutions plan educational travel as a definite part of their educational program, arranging a personally conducted tour under careful supervision and requiring associated study. Such travel should receive recognition in advancement in the salary schedule or promotion. A second type of travel, more easily identified, is more informal in nature, constituting any form of peregrination during vacation periods. Because most teachers seldom teach beyond nine or ten months a year, the summer months are especially adapted to travel. Ease of travel has been made possible through the automobile, fine highways, motels, accessible points of interest, planned excursions, attractive rates, and the many pleasures of the occasion. The exhilarating experiences of the open road, forest, stream, mountain, historic shrine, ocean travel, and new associations abound in the memory, creating new ideas and inspira-

tion, enriching the classroom experiences, and developing a nostalgic longing for their repetition. Travel should have a conspicuous place in every program of in-service improvement for teachers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare a list of definitions of supervision from at least five authorities. What are its principal characteristics?
2. What is meant by administrative supervision? Draw a personnel chart for the administration of supervision in a (a) city school district, (b) county, and (c) smaller school district.
3. What are the advantages of the teachers' institute? To what extent is it possible to apply the principles of group planning and action in teachers' institutes as commonly conducted? (Compare Sherman's findings.)
4. Comment on the discussion on teachers' meetings. Do these agree with the practice in your school system? Evaluate a series of such meetings after careful observation. What are the chief objections of teachers to teachers' meetings?
5. Make a list of the state-sponsored activities useful for in-service education in your state. Evaluate their effectiveness.
6. Make a list of the activities sponsored by teacher education institutions in your area for teacher improvement in-service. Evaluate their effectiveness.
7. Enumerate the methods sponsored in your school by the administration for teacher improvement in-service. Rank them in order of effectiveness.
8. Compare teacher intervisitation with demonstration teaching as improvement techniques.
9. What opportunities are offered in your community which are effective in teacher improvement. What is the relation of community interest in good schools with the opportunities available for improvement?
10. What are the characteristics of a good teacher profession? What opportunities are available through membership for growth in-service?
11. Demonstrate that you have a thorough understanding of the principles of group planning through group dynamics. Observe a group meeting in which these principles were actively utilized. What are your impressions?
12. Draw up a set of regulations which may be adopted by a board of education for leaves of absence. How would you administer them?
13. Do you agree with the author that the workshop movement has great potentialities as a teacher improvement technique? Comment.

14. Enumerate some tangible results on your teaching definitely traceable to travel.

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Evaluating the Teacher and His Work

PASSING judgment upon others is characteristic of the American way of life. We appraise others in general terms as to say, he is a good mechanic, a good doctor, a good man. Such judgments may be based on observation of long continued "goodness," characteristics of one's known behavior, or they may be the result of a single observation in which one's particular action or behavior resulted in "good" to some one. Or we may speak of a person as "good" because we know nothing of ill concerning him. Perhaps a single act of "badness" may ruin the sustained reputation of one long characterized as good. Goodness may mean different things to different people, because of their peculiar standards of judgment or their attitudes. The same person may be good to one person and quite unacceptable to another; he may be good in one community and unacceptable in another.

Teachers have long been known to differ widely in ability and accomplishment. Parents ask their children, "How do you like your new teacher?" to which the reply may be based on a comparison with a former teacher, a pleasing manner, a single occurrence of helpfulness, or just hearsay. One's attitude may be influenced by the attitude of the group or even by a single act of goodness or indiscretion. The point is that teachers, perhaps above all other professional groups, are subject to constant subjective appraisals, which may, in large part, determine their effectiveness as teachers. Unfortunately, such appraisals based on general impressions, quite often a single impression, and in many instances quite untrustworthily, become the basis for selection, retention, promotion, trans-

fer, and even dismissal. Knowing these things as teachers must, it is difficult to understand why teachers by and large oppose so vigorously objective measures designed for their own protection, especially when they are so insistent in applying measures of appraisal to their own pupils with a contented willingness to abide, even insist, on these results, however subjective they may be.

For more than four decades vigorous attempts have been made to determine and apply with more objectivity measures of teaching efficiency. These attempts have grown out of the scientific movement applied to education, especially the testing movement. Administrators have been faced with many problems in teacher selection, administration of salary schedules, promotion, tenure, and dismissal, in which reliable information as to efficiency is necessary. The literature abounds with hundreds of studies and descriptive reports of attempts to arrive at a reliable method of measuring teacher efficiency. At best we can say that these are promising and but partially successful. Perhaps it is because of the complex nature both of the teacher's personality as well as the teaching process. Perhaps the task may be impossible.

This chapter deals with the essentials in evaluating teaching efficiency. The sections treated are (1) historical approaches, (2) modern approaches, (3) purposes of teachers' evaluation, (4) methods used in evaluation, (5) progress in evaluation in nonschool activities, (6) critical analysis of evaluative methods, (7) attitudes and objectives, and (8) best practices.

HISTORICAL APPROACHES

Bases of Judgment

One approaches the study of teacher evaluation with mixed feelings. Greatness in teaching may be a matter of perspective in which time intervenes in order to designate greatness. Jesus and Socrates were maligned in their day, even executed by their generations, yet remain as the world's greatest teachers. Many teachers who in later life are held in fond memory were feared, even detested, at the time. Perhaps the very opposition to change through learning is painful and creates dislike. Standards of one generation differ from another. The educational lag is never noted to greater advantage; and yet, as we have noted, to pass judgment on another is somehow in-

grained in each individual. We have made progress in applying objectivity to material things, but we have faltered where the human element is concerned, largely because of its complexity.

Great teachers of the past were those who sought to change an existing social or religious order. Their success depended upon the number and strength of their followers. The standards of conduct and mores of a community became the criterion of judgment, depending upon who exercised it and the influence exerted. Standards varied with the community. Social penalties were often drastic and immediate, being often occasioned by a single act of so-called indiscretion. Thus a music-minded community measured the success of its teachers by its singing schools. Where spelling bees, lyceums, and church activities were the principal social diversions of the day, the teacher's success was in direct relation to his participation and leadership.¹ Failure to discipline his school by the most rigorous methods rendered the teacher immediately unfit for further service, especially if he could not whip the "school bully" in fair fight.² In fact, many believed that the way to learning was through a liberal application of the "hickory stick, which must be prominently displayed to announce" its availability. Some moderns believe that the teacher's effectiveness would be materially advanced by its return.

Social Estimates

The social customs became standards of appraisal of teachers, who must attend church, be seen in the right places, and associate with the right people. Drunkenness was frowned upon, especially if it be on the Lord's Day. Perhaps to "hold one's liquor" made the difference. Nonpayment of debts, immorality as interpreted by the community, slander, profanity, involvement in lawsuits, luxurious living beyond one's means, any one alone would impair the teacher's efficiency and call for immediate dismissal. On the other hand, saintly characters such as Christopher Dock rendered continued teaching service throughout their lifetime and have burnished their names in

¹ William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, The Dryden Press, 1951, chap. 3, esp. pp. 40-42.

² Study early school discipline as related by Ellwood P. Cubberley, *History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, pp. 455-456. For a recent account, read Jesse Stuart, *The Thread That Runs So True*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951, Part I.

history and legend. Since character is so important in good living, it must be inculcated in children by teachers of good character who remain above reproach. Time has only accentuated this great ideal.

First Attempts at Evaluation of the Teacher's Work

While most appraisals of teachers pertained to them as individuals, there were attempts to pass judgment on the teacher's efficiency in the classroom. School committees had the responsibility of school inspection, usually assigned to ministers who endeavored to ascertain "what proficiency the children under their care have made or are likely to make in reading, writing and arithmetic."³ Pupils were expected to "make their manners," were carefully catechized, and had to behave with strict obedience and decorum. Woe to that teacher if a line or two was missed, the room was slovenly, or the rules were not posted prominently. Perhaps the teacher could overcome his seeming deficiencies with leadership in community affairs, devout church attendance, perhaps a singing voice, knowledge of current affairs, and occasionally, prudent attention to the ladies. Much depended too on his services to the household as he boarded around.

These early assignments of evaluation through inspection to visiting committees of laymen have continued to be one of the most influential means of judging teacher's efficiency. As school systems grew, such powers were written into law. Many such powers were retained or delegated to administrative officers as the professional function developed. It is significant to observe that boards of education have derived and retained much of their influence over the selection, retention, appraisal, and dismissal of teachers. Inspection became surveillance which, in turn, denoted a rigid control which still generally prevails. Teachers' tenure has become the means of breaking this "stranglehold," even though the means for dismissal are bound within it.

Growth of Education as a Profession

Many factors which have contributed to the development of education as a profession have profoundly influenced the nature of teaching and its evaluation. The growth of the normal schools laid the foundation for a body of learning associated with teaching. Uni-

³ Yeager, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

versal education associated with the development of public school systems, writing in the field of pedagogy and psychology, rise of educational associations, and especially the development of the professional administrative officer and his staff, have all contributed to a new sense of values in education and a corresponding demand for new measures of teaching efficiency. With greater emphasis on supervision came increased emphasis on the results of the teaching process, measured in terms of pupil growth and achievement. All of this points to better selection of teachers for which adequate measures and procedures should be developed. Teachers' attitudes were important. Constantly faced with high turnover, promotion, salary schedule administration and similar problems, administrators have sought the way out through scales and rating forms which, however faulty, might offer some measure of protection in administering a difficult and perplexing personnel function.

Teacher Judgment Through Pupil Examination

Two steps in the development of teacher appraisal have been noted: (1) inspection, which grew out of the establishment of schools in New England, and (2) the oral examination (sometimes referred to as catechizing) both of teachers and pupils. The written examination began to supersede the oral quiz, largely through the urgings of Horace Mann⁴ and his contemporaries. From this movement it was an easy step to appraise the teacher's work through the results of these examinations of his pupils. The written examination system became the principal means of measuring the progress both of teacher as well as pupils. By the turn of the century, as Bliss⁵ points out, the periodic written examination became the principal means used by the supervisory officer to determine efficiency of instruction, although it was a poor and wasteful plan. Superintendents, recognizing its futility, were turning to the standardized test. Here at least were norms which had been developed with reasonable accuracy for comparison. It was easy in applying these norms to ascertain whether the class in question was above or below an expected standard.

⁴ O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education*, Yonkers, N.Y., World Book Company, 1924, pp. 37-46.

⁵ Don C. Bliss, *Methods and Standards for Local School Surveys*, Boston, D.C. Heath & Company, 1918, p. 62.

From appraisal procedures based on the results of tests, the next logical step was to include other evidences of pupil progress. The traits and qualifications of the teacher were added. The "whole child" concept of teaching has necessitated an approach which would include measures adapted to its component parts. Unfortunately, there is little common agreement as to the exact value of the "whole child," and until there is an adequate connotation in this respect there is little possibility that reliable measures of evaluation can be developed from this point of view.

DEFINITIONS

Before proceeding further in this discussion, it is important that we have a clear notion as to the meaning of certain terms. Terms generally associated are appraisal, evaluation, measurement, and rating, including such terms as merit rating and teacher rating.

Appraisal, according to dictionary definition, stems from the concept of value and means "to set a value on" or to estimate worth (officially). It is much the older term with its connotations leaning perhaps toward subjective values. Objective means of appraisal became available and supplanted subjective estimates. Appraisal is usually thought of in terms of specific phases, with instruments designed to appraise component parts. In this regard it may differ markedly from evaluation, which seeks to integrate and interpret various indices of behavior into a portrait or pattern.

Measurement is an older term. It grew out of the effort of pioneers to determine with greater exactness the achievement of pupils. Monroe states that the emphasis in measurement is upon single aspects of subject matter achievement, or specific skills and abilities. These may be arrived at with a fair degree of accuracy, depending on the validity and reliability of the test and the procedures used.⁶

Evaluation is a relatively new technical term introduced to designate a more comprehensive concept of the function. From the dictionary it is synonomous with appraisal; however, three characteristics may set it apart: (1) it is a more inclusive term, (2) its values have a wider range, and (3) its findings are determined more objectively. Evaluation presupposes a definition of goals to be attained.

⁶ *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 403. See also William A. McCall, *How to Measure an Education*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923, chap. 2.

It makes use of measurement, yet is not synonymous with it. It includes observations, both quantitative and qualitative in nature. It judges the degree to which predetermined goals are attained in terms of measures, and interpreted according to standards.⁷ Evaluation goes beyond measurement. It includes attitudes, interests, ideals, ways of thinking, work habits, and personal and social adaptability, in which determined values may depend much on subjective methods of appraisal.

Rating has been defined as an estimate made according to some systematized procedure, of the degree to which an individual or thing possesses any given trait or traits.⁸ Rating has the connotation of a procedure by means of which judgments are passed in terms of certain specifics by means of an instrument designed to measure traits or characteristics. It becomes a series of estimates arrived at quantitatively or qualitatively, in terms of judgments placed upon a scale or other device. Some writers point out that rating involves a "one-way judgment" without the participation of the rated person.⁹ This may not necessarily be true.

Merit rating implies the use of rating in the form of a scale or similar device for the purpose of determining degrees of merit, that is, as much as one deserves. Merit rating implies some purpose for the determination of deserved worth, as for certification purposes, salary increments, promotion, or even dismissal. In most cases, degrees of merit are determined for the one rated without his participation.

Summary

Rating may be one method of evaluation or it may be a part of an evaluation procedure. Many writers use the terms *evaluation* and *appraisal* indiscriminately, although there is considerable disagreement.¹⁰ In this text, the term *evaluation* is used in a more inclusive

⁷ Maurice E. Troyer and C. Gilbert Pace, *Evaluation in Teacher Education*, Commission on Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944, p. 1; *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, op. cit., "Evaluation," pp. 403-404.

⁸ Carter V. Good, ed., *Dictionary of Education*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1945, p. 327.

⁹ National Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better than Rating*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1950, pp. 8-9.

¹⁰ A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, *Supervision*, New York:

sense. It is difficult to distinguish between the evaluation of the teacher and the evaluation of teaching, both being different aspects of the evaluation process, although some writers attempt to do so. Evaluation may be both formal and informal, formal in the sense of a record for a specific purpose, or informal in order to make choices and come to decisions in planning for growth. Evaluation, in the latter sense, has been described as a "mutual stock-taking for purposes of achieving commonly recognized objectives."¹¹

PURPOSES OF EVALUATION

While general impressions of teachers have been long in common use, the notion has come to prevail that abilities and accomplishments should be more specific. Evaluation should be made in terms of a purpose with a means of evaluation adapted to that purpose.

Selection of Teachers

We have seen that the selective process for teachers occurs at several points in his education and placement. In the past, little was done to apply selective criteria at any step; almost anyone who desired could become a teacher. As teaching became more and more professionalized, selective means came to be applied upon entrance to the institution, and at various stages throughout his education. Upon graduation, the school system came to apply selective measures in finding and retaining the needed teachers. Some evaluation and prediction of teaching success was particularly essential, so that through successive evaluations, better teachers and teaching emerged.

Salary and Promotion

The typical teacher's salary schedule starts with a beginning salary based on a minimum educational standard of preparation and no experience. Advancement in salary (increments) is then based on two fundamental characteristics: (1) definite number of years of teaching experience, and (2) additional preparation indicated, usually in credit hours or degrees. The assumption is that the teacher grows more efficient both through additional years of experience and further formal education. These measures are relatively easy to ap-

Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947, chap. 6. See also George C. Kyte, *The Principal at Work*, Boston: Ginn & Company, 1952, chap. 28.

¹¹ *Better than Rating*, op. cit., p. 9.

ply. Ordinarily, it is true that a teacher becomes more efficient as he gains both in experience and additional education. However, there is a prevailing notion that there is a gradual rise in the typical teacher's efficiency through a certain period, as six to ten years, after which his efficiency reaches a plateau stage and tapers off markedly. Some teachers do not mature with experience; with others, further education produces no greater efficiency. And yet many teachers continue to grow professionally, emerging into creative artists. To recognize all teachers in salary increments without regard to efficiency is one of the critical problems of personnel administration.

At this point, the significance of some measure of teacher effectiveness emerges in order to justify further advancement on the salary schedule. Teachers who labor diligently to improve in efficiency resent those who receive equivalent salary advancement without regard to a similar demonstration, especially if they evade their responsibilities and are lacking in industry generally. Merit rating has been advanced as the means of determining further eligibility for salary advancement. Many plans have been tried. These have been developed and applied largely in large city school systems, particularly at the point of "superior teacher" classification. Because of many difficulties centering largely about the rating device and the procedure, merit rating for salary advancement has met with little success and general approval.

The Probationary Period

It is generally accepted that the inexperienced teacher should demonstrate acceptability through a probationary period of two or three years, at the end of which time some measure of teaching success should be predictable. Forms and procedures for this purpose are provided in many states. Promotion within the system to other positions may require similar measures of demonstrated efficiency. Such ratings may be made regularly for the record when needed, or upon occasion. Multiple ratings offer better evidences than a single measure.

Supervision

The supervisory process can be greatly improved through better measures adapted to an analysis of teachers' traits, teaching procedures, and desirable outcomes. In the preservice period, such rating

plans enable the prospective teacher to acquire knowledge of his strengths and weaknesses in terms of predetermined standards. Through suggestions and analysis, he can improve both the education and teaching competency.

Rating forms can be used in a similar manner for supervisory purposes while teaching. Care should be taken to overcome the objectionable feature of secrecy as to rating results. Supervision through successive ratings followed by successive conferences in which strengths and weaknesses are analyzed and improvements made in specific terms offers an excellent means of teacher improvement in service. Teachers have a certain satisfaction in evidences of their achievement. Such evidences offer an opportunity for specific suggestions designed for improvement.

Retirement and Dismissal

Occasionally it may be necessary to secure some measure of a teacher's fitness to continue teaching when approaching the period of retirement. Physical disability necessitating retirement may depend upon the judgment of a physician. This may be relatively easy to measure because of obvious symptoms or expert medical testimony. However, a teacher's inability to perform certain tasks or to demonstrate competence in teaching ability and pupil progress requires reliable measures in order to justify action to be taken. Of greater significance are measures applied to determine incompetency which may lead to dismissal for cause. While justice must be done to the teacher at all times, it is of far greater importance that justice be done to the pupils and to the public. The situation is so vital that any rating should be fairly administered and reliably determined.

Records

A teacher's performance over a period of years can be determined through a series of ratings or other evaluative procedures designed to indicate progress from time to time. Adequate records provide incoming administrators and supervisors with information concerning the members of the staff. These records may serve a useful purpose both for the protection of the teachers as well as the public.

Benefits of Rating

The benefits of teacher rating as an evaluative procedure have been set forth by many writers. Symond's list of benefits is illus-

trative. Rating may (1) be an aid to administrators, (2) stimulate the person being rated, (3) react in a favorable way on the person doing the rating, (4) keep alive the professional spirit, if periodically given, (5) help to make judgments analytic, (6) tend to make judgments representative, and (7) be a recognized method of getting data for research.¹²

METHODS OF EVALUATION

Numerous methods have been employed in order to secure some measure of teaching success. These methods range from subjective (general impressions)¹³ to more objective measures such as score cards.

General-Impression Method

This method has been the most commonly employed in appraising teachers and has a long history. Impressions secured are the basis of specific acts with resultant effects, as a pleasing personality, physical prowess, and individual pupil success. While many of these impressions may be cumulative in effect, single isolated incidents can be quite sufficient to spell the difference between the success and failure of a teacher. Impressions based on a single act or a group of acts may tend to determine decisions which may ultimately affect the teacher in her position and as a person. As a matter of fact, general impressions and resulting reactions concerning teachers are so evident as to be commonplace. Unfortunately, decisions involving success or failure are all too often based on flimsy evidence, hearsay, and personal attitudes.

Data-Gathering Devices

Efforts to overcome the evils of hasty general impressions through the collection of data which might assist in a better appraisal have resulted in many types of devices in which at least some objective data are gathered. One technique which is widely used is a duplicate form on which points of commendation and suggestions for improvement are recorded after the visitation. These notations can

¹² Percival A. Symonds, *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1931, pp. 41-44.

¹³ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1951, pp. 220 ff.

form the basis for a subsequent conference, and in comparing progress in subsequent visits.

Written records of many types have been developed. Stenographic reports of lessons have been used with some success. A stenographer records an exact account of all happenings in the classroom both by the teacher and pupils during a given period. This practice can become cumbersome and inefficient. Voice-recording instruments useful in making exact recordings of classroom happenings have the added advantage of being "played back" as often as desired for analysis.

Intercommunication systems are now a part of modern school equipment. The shift of a key will bring a classroom situation direct to the principal's office from which recordings may be made if desired. It has the added advantage of recording a classroom situation in its natural setting. Teachers generally do not approve of this method of operation, nor is its usefulness as a method of appraisal generally advantageous. To these devices may be added diaries, anecdotal records, personal data records, recommendations, written statements, and other information which may reveal a reliable basis upon which a full and complete evaluation can be made.

The teaching record, illustrated by *The Ohio Teaching Record*,¹⁴ is an instrument sometimes used to evaluate teaching. The form is so arranged that an anecdotal record of a series of observations of teaching may be entered as a basis for later formulation of judgments. The teacher can use the booklet to record his own impressions of his practices and his progress. The comprehensive nature of this plan is its chief value.

Measures of Pupil Growth and Opinions

Most administrators agree that the best measure of a teacher's competency is in terms of pupil growth and development. Two groups of measures may be identified: (1) actual tests of pupil achievement accompanied by teacher aptitudes for development, and (2) pupil judgments in which pupil opinions are secured with reference to their teachers. In using pupil tests as the single criterion, it is obvious that there are so many other aspects of teaching which

¹⁴ Ohio State University College of Education, *The Ohio Teaching Record*, Columbus, O., Ohio State University Press, 1941. For an evaluation see *Better than Rating*, *op. cit.*, pp. 53-54.

cannot be included and are not possible of adequate measure because of their variability. If measures of pupil growth and development are used, they must be interpreted as one measure, and related fairly to other factors concerned in the teaching process, so that a true picture is indicated.

Several studies have attempted to evaluate teaching in terms of pupil opinions of good and poor teachers, on the assumption that pupils like good teachers and are stimulated to progress because of desirable relationships. Pupils' judgments of good teachers are expressed in such attributes as friendliness, helpfulness, insincerity, consideration, "makes me study," and "is a good teacher." Pupils declare teachers to be poor teachers largely on terms of opposites of the above characteristics. While these studies are informative as an added measure of teacher appraisal, it should be borne in mind that the judgments of immature pupils are colored by many situations which influence their perspective and have little to do with pupil growth and development. For example, the popularity of a teacher may be a direct outcome of physical attractiveness and social charm, and personal friendliness may be mistaken for teaching ability.¹⁵

Score Cards and Rating Scales

Efforts to discover a more objective plan of evaluating teaching competency have resulted in a prolific output of score cards and rating scales of all sorts. Barr, Brueckner, and Burton¹⁶ have identified six types as follows: (1) point scales, (2) quality scales, (3) diagnostic scales, (4) graphic scales, (5) human scales, and (6) conduct scales. Another classification of rating scales has been made by Reavis and Cooper,¹⁷ namely: (1) the *check scale*, which lists several attributes of the teacher and his work, to be evaluated by a rater; (2) *guided-comment report*, in which the rater writes out his comments on a number of leading questions or suggestive topics. These comments are meant to be evaluative; (3) *characterization report*, in which the rater records impressions in terms of single descriptive

¹⁵ Paul A. Witty, "Evaluation of Studies of the Characteristics of the Effective Teacher," *Official Report* of the American Educational Research Association, 1945, pp. 198-204.

¹⁶ Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, *op. cit.*, p. 342.

¹⁷ William A. Reavis and Dan H. Cooper, *Evaluation of Teacher Merit in City School Systems*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, University of Chicago, January, 1945, pp. 18 ff.

adjectives or letters; (4) *description report*, a running statement of teacher merit; and (5) *ranking report*, in which all teachers are ranked in order of excellence.

While rating scales are generally considered superior to other methods of teacher evaluation because they tend to be more specific, they can become subjective and opinionated, if little effort is made to be objective, or if objective data are not secured upon which to evaluate fairly. If the rating is done in an ostentatious and secretive manner, with little or no participation of the one rated, the results may be attended by suspicion and objection, especially if promotion and increased salary are dependent on its results.

Check Scales

The development of measures of teacher evaluation in terms of greater objectivity has taken two forms, namely (1) the identification of areas of teacher competency and their coordination into an instrument designed to evaluate teaching as an integrated process; and (2) a scale measurement usually on a four- or five-point distribution, in which levels of competency are indicated by descriptive characteristics, so phrased that the rater can identify them easily and check accordingly. A quantitative rating of each teacher can thus be secured by subsequent translation and summation of all scores, and an interpretation made in accordance with some previously determined standard. In a study of the items in 85 check scales involving 1538 items, Reavis and Cooper identified check scale items in seven areas as follows:¹⁸ (1) personal characteristics (17 items), (2) social relations (17 items), (3) professional qualifications (8 items), (4) habits of work (27 items), (5) instructional skill (48 items), (6) noninstructional school services (14 items), and (7) pupil results (37 items).

In commenting upon the use of check scales in appraising teachers' competency, Reavis and Cooper point out the following significant conclusions: (1) composite scores tend to obscure single extreme characteristics which may be either favorable or unfavorable to the teacher; (2) single characteristics may be critical to teaching success and (a) may not be easily identified, and (b) may be difficult to substantiate; (3) teachers good enough for retention may not

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, chap. 2.

be the *best* teachers for a particular position; (4) scale scores should be accompanied by statements which support or supplement strategic evaluation; (5) it may be difficult to recognize, comprehend, and secure evidence on many items as well as point values; (6) qualitative labeling of values may not fit every individual case; (7) a rater's general impressions sometimes influence his judgment in specific items especially if specific data are unavailable; (8) pertinent items may be omitted in certain check scales; (9) instructions to the raters are not always clear; (10) competency of the rater may be called into question; (11) rating scales may not always fit the specific purpose¹⁹ of the rating; and (12) it might make a difference "who is rated."

METHODS OF APPLYING MEASURES OF EVALUATION

Evaluation by Superior Officers

In applying the various measures of teacher evaluation, the common practice is to delegate this responsibility to certain administrative and supervisory officers charged by law or the school district with such function. In some states, both the score card and the procedure are prescribed by law and regulation. In many states, especially where tenure is in operation, ratings and anecdotal records must be filed at intervals. Ratings are required for certification, for salary increments, promotion, and other purposes. All of these ratings should be carefully filed and considered confidential. Many principals and supervisors are required to rate and rank their teachers annually.

Joint Evaluation

Certain school systems use a joint evaluation procedure in which the teachers and the supervisory officer, usually the principal, evaluate his work jointly. While a definite form may be used, scores may or may not be given, depending on the purpose in mind. Conferences are held following evaluation. Advantages lie chiefly in mutual checking, frank discussion, and joint agreement. If properly used,

¹⁹ For example: fifteen purposes of rating scales have been identified, the first eight being for re-employment, to change assignment, to transfer, to determine salary, to establish tenure, to select candidates, to stimulate teacher growth, and to protect teachers (*ibid.*, p. 40).

this procedure makes for better understanding and increased efficiency.

Self-Evaluation

Rating scales may be used by teachers for self-evaluation purposes. These are valuable if all characteristics comprising the major areas of teaching and the teacher's qualities are included, and the scale properly constructed. On some scales characteristics are indicated in positive question form, with a scale value of from three to five points. Space may be provided for definite evidence of each characteristic. Any plan of self-evaluation is limited in purpose, especially if intended primarily for the teacher's growth and development. It does direct the teacher's attention to desirable elements in teaching with suggestions for self-improvement. The plan lacks emphasis on pupil growth and achievement factors, and on wholesome and impartial supervisory criticism.

TECHNIQUES IN ADMINISTRATIVE USE OF RESULTS

In utilizing the results of any measure of teacher appraisal, whatever the nature, the administrator is faced with certain conditions which may govern their use. The following are suggestive of the techniques which may be used and the problems associated with them.

Reliability and Validity of Ratings

Pooling the judgment of a number of raters concerning a single individual tends to increase the reliability of the ratings. Hence final judgments should rest upon collective rather than single ratings. Validity of a rating increases with the objectivity of observations of the trait to be rated. Better quality of rating increases with better quality of evidence. The number of items to be rated should be within the comprehension and control of the rater.

RANK-ORDER. The method of determining success by rank is one of long standing. It may be used either by ranking several individual scores of an individual teacher, or by averaging the ranks of a number of raters. The teacher's rank may be compared to any known standard, as a required percentage, or specific standing as in the "upper half."

PAIRED COMPARISONS. Ratings obtained by the *paired-comparison*

method requires that each individual or attribute be judged in turn as better or worse than every other individual or attribute in the group. Judgments are then assigned, and scale values and comparisons made. Guilford suggests that it may furnish a criterion of validity against which to check any of the less rigorous methods of rating, especially when the less reliable methods are questioned.²⁰

FORCED CHOICE TECHNIQUE. In this technique the rater is forced to make discriminating choices which reveal preference indices from which more reliable results can be made.

THE PERSONAL EQUATION. Even with the most reliable results available to the administrator, he is faced with the removal of personal bias or prejudice of any form in utilizing the results of the most objectively determined ratings. The "halo" effect of a teacher, first described by writers more than four decades ago, is likely to influence both the rating of traits as well as their subsequent utilization, especially those traits not easily observable or clearly defined. Such traits as character and personality may becloud other traits denoting poor teaching. Administrative utilization may be influenced by nepotism, teacher supply and demand, teacher influence, personal friendships, school-board resistance, and many other factors.

APPRAISAL METHODS IN INDUSTRY AND PUBLIC SERVICE

Students of the American way of life have observed with considerable satisfaction that the heritage of our national background includes an estimate of each man for his own worth. Since nothing succeeds quite like success, there are always factors associated with that success, such as physical prowess, leadership qualities, better production, and personality translated into action.²¹ Since there is so much in life that is competitive, social institutions have developed many methods of appraising results competitively. Many of these plans offer suggestions for use in education.

Industry

Industry is geared to the production principle in which competition in one form or another looms large. Each employee is expected

²⁰ Consult L. L. Thurstone, "The Method of Paired Comparisons for Social Values," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1927, pp. 384-400. See also J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936.

²¹ The reader will find the following quite stimulating—George Counts, *The American Road to Culture*, New York, John Day Company, 1930.

to measure up to standards of job performance and output. Not only is his own promotion or other advantage at stake, but the very existence of the industry depends on his performance. Management is constantly rating its employees. In doing so it must depend upon records of production, and the supervisor's estimate of personal ability.

Some form of systematic employee rating (sometimes called "merit" rating or "performance" rating) has been developed by many industries as a means of assisting supervisors in this task. Advantages of employee rating as pointed out by Pigors and Myers²² are (1) uniform and systematic judgments, (2) records of progress or difficulties, and (3) information for selection, salary increases and other purposes. Periodic discussion of ratings with the employee is an important consideration. Much depends on the fairness of the plan, especially since there is a growing demand on the part of unionism for straight seniority in promotion. Where demotion and layoff are concerned, the need for an acceptable plan of rating is all the greater.

Federal Civil Service

When the Federal Civil Service Act was adopted, its purpose was to relieve political pressure and substitute merit as a basis for employment and promotion. The Civil Service Commission has devised and altered various forms in order to determine degrees of merit for an ever-increasing number of employees. Early plans proved quite unpopular and subsequent revisions have shown little improvement. Chief objections are difficulties in measuring the great varieties of services performed by different employees, questioned validity because of subjective nature, competitive nature of workers under each classification, and difficulties in administration. In summary, while much has been attempted in appraising the services of the federal civil employees, the plan cannot be called an outstanding success. It offers little that can be applied to education.

Municipal Service

Some progress has been made in large cities in rating practices as applied to civil employees. In general these forms resemble those

²² Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951, chap. 14.

used in city school systems. Ratings may be made annually, semi-annually, and even monthly. Traits are measured on a scale and factual material collected. There would appear to be little in the experience of ratings of civil employees in cities to indicate that school systems could profit greatly thereby.²³

TEACHER AND ADMINISTRATIVE ATTITUDES AND OBJECTIONS

Rast's Study

In spite of the great progress that has been made in developing and administering acceptable plans of teacher evaluation, serious objections have been offered by both teachers and administrators. Rast²⁴ in his studies of cities of over 50,000 population revealed thirty-four different types of objections expressed by school administrators who are using some form of rating. In general, these objections center around (1) the validity of the process and/or form in use, (2) mechanical features, use of terms, difficulty of administration or application of data, and (3) reactions of teachers, school, and community, resulting in low morale, rivalries, and jealousies.

Aurand's List

Perhaps the best analysis of objections has been made by Aurand.²⁵ These are (1) lack of objectivity, due largely to presence of human judgment; (2) lack of provision for recognizing and compensating variables, such as time, personal factors, influence, and change; (3) lack of statistical accuracy; (4) lack of agreement in meaning of terms (Rast found a total of 278 descriptive terms, the average number of terms in a single instrument being about thirty); (5) lack of evidence that traits usually considered in rating plans bear any significant relationship to teaching success. Most significant ones appear to be intelligence, interest in teaching, knowledge of subject matter, and scholastic success; (6) lack of control over influencing

²³ Aurand (see below), p. 87. A good discussion and evaluation of federal civil service evaluation and techniques may be found in O. H. Aurand, *Evaluating Professional Service in Public Schools*, Teachers College, Columbia University, doctor's dissertation project, 1948, pp. 80-85.

²⁴ G. E. Rast, *Teacher Rating in Cities over 50,000 Population*, University of Chicago, unpublished master's thesis, 1933.

²⁵ Aurand, *op. cit.*

environmental factors;²⁶ (7) lack of support for the scientific approach, especially those who believe that good teaching partakes more of the artistic than scientific; (8) lack of adaptability of rating results to purposes for which rating is imposed, including acceptance of teachers of results for purposes used; (9) objections based upon mechanical features, and (10) objections based on teacher reactions, usually audible and violent.

Difficulties in Reconciling Theory and Practice

A significant problem in teacher evaluation is the difficulty of reconciling the theory of teaching and preferred practice which form the basis of the teacher's education in college and university, with practice under teaching conditions to be found in many public school systems. The teacher may be handicapped because of conditions beyond his control. Examples of these conditions are readily observable in large classes, lack of textbooks and materials, poor equipment, absence of audio-visual aids, and similar conditions. Younger and more inexperienced teachers are more likely to contend unsuccessfully with these conditions; older teachers may be in a more strategic position to demand and secure preferred advantages.

Community Interest

Again there is the factor of the teacher and the community. The interest of citizens in better schools is reflected in insistence on good teaching and good morale. On their part, teachers should take an interest in the community, in order to understand its problems and the environment of the pupils. There may be little that teachers can do to change or improve the climate of ideas which exist in a school or community without sympathetic supervision and community support. This is especially true if real freedom is denied to the teacher to secure and apply needed essentials. Hence any attempt to evaluate the teacher without taking these things into consideration is unfair and becomes a source of irritation.

It is obvious that a sound basis for teacher evaluation should begin with a critical analysis and interpretation of what is already known concerning it. There should follow a proper understanding of the objections to it, and the remedies to be applied. In summary,

²⁶ Compare Arvid J. Burke, "Some Dangers of Merit Measurement," *Nations Schools*, January, 1948, pp. 27-28.

the simple conclusion centers about (1) the construction of an acceptable instrument designed for the purpose intended, and (2) devising a procedure for its use which will be acceptable both to those who are concerned in its use and for the purposes intended. The challenge in this discussion is one of the most significant in personnel administration.

EVALUATION THROUGH GROUP ACTION AND INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENTS

The application of democratic principles through group action in the administration of staff personnel has long been advocated. Numerous plans have been developed in administering many aspects of the educational program democratically, examples being curriculum revision and budgetary practices. Group action can extend to evaluation in which the evaluation of the individual teacher is a part of a larger plan for evaluation which may include the whole educational program. In fact, it may be difficult to justify the evaluation of any teacher on the basis of his individual characteristics considered apart from the larger tasks to be accomplished. Each teacher's progress should be definitely related to the success of pupils in their educational progress.

In considering group action, teachers and supervisors can become a team, each with definite responsibilities. The end is learning. The educational program with its standards can be determined cooperatively.

Each teacher can and should make his own contribution to that program. In this process the following are outcomes: (1) pressures of the group stimulate the laggard teacher; (2) leadership emerges often where least expected; (3) responsibility has a tremendous influence; (4) morale is maintained through participation and self-expression; (5) the interests of the individual teacher become the interests of the group; and (6) there is respect for personality accomplished in no other way.

The Maladjusted Teacher

There still remains the problem of the elimination of the unfit and maladjusted teacher. This problem is complicated by tenure laws, attitudes of boards of education, and many administrative considerations. Since poor ratings in themselves rarely bring about

dismissals, they tend to occasion disagreeable situations. Procedure through group action may have some advantageous results. Self-elimination of the unfit is a desirable goal to achieve, especially where public opinion and social pressure can be brought into action. In extreme cases however, administrative leadership has no other recourse but to do this duty and take decisive action.

Peculiar Adjustments

The recognition of individual differences among teachers is of great significance in teacher evaluation. In fact, much of the opposition to rating stems from attempts to apply uniform measures of evaluation without proper consideration. The following may be helpful in this connection: (1) probationary teachers should not be expected to give similar service as more experienced teachers; (2) they should receive special assistance and be encouraged with challenging opportunities; (3) maladjusted teachers may give greater service through transfer to another environment, thus anticipating possible failure; (4) teachers who pass through trying physical and emotional disturbances which may affect their service should receive special consideration; (5) security through sick leave, retirement, salary, and other benefits may revitalize a teacher; (6) adjusted programs may be necessary in the case of certain teachers, especially older teachers; and (7) a sympathetic attitude toward all teachers, especially providing them with every possible advantage for adequate growth and development while in service, may have greater results than twice the time spent in rating minutiae. Perhaps after all the crux of the matter is in wise and human understanding of all teachers as human beings.

PRINCIPLES AND BEST PRACTICES

Underlying Principles

In proposing a sound basis for teacher evaluation, certain principles are offered which should be studied for their application in specific situations. These are as follows:

1. Teacher evaluation should be an integral part of the educational program, and the ends to be achieved definitely in harmony with educational goals.

2. Since the educational program should be the result of democratic procedures adapted to a school-community environment, and in harmony with desirable practice, similar procedures should be identified for the processes which should form a part of that program, including teacher evaluation.
3. Individual teacher growth is a paramount consideration in the development of the educational program. This means both growth in service of acceptable teachers with the courageous elimination of the unfit and ill-adapted.
4. The evaluation process should be a cooperative enterprise, since it concerns pupils, school people, and lay citizens. Public opinion reliably determined is a powerful force and invaluable in evaluation.
5. Since education is so responsive to change, the program of evaluation should be flexible, continuous, adaptable to change, and sufficiently comprehensive.
6. Teaching has both a scientific as well as an artistic basis. Techniques should be developed and measures used which have both reliability and validity for determining the scientific aspects of teaching, with the results used only insofar as they indicate acceptability for this purpose. The artistic basis of teaching is more difficult to determine. For the present we may have to determine fitness in this area on a nonscientific basis in which expert opinion plays an important part.
7. Evaluation of personnel should be anticipated through better selective techniques. The selection of a teacher should be in relation to his peculiar fitness for performing a specific service. Nonadaptability is thus prevented before it occurs.
8. Since the morale of the teaching personnel is of much significance in the success of an educational program, instruments developed or procedures used should be directed toward its improvement. To this end group acceptance of the means used and outcomes reached may be one of its most desirable characteristics.

Administrative Approaches to Application

In applying these principles to the development of a satisfying teacher evaluation plan, the following may be offered as a basis for an administrative approach to improvement.

1. *Cooperative determination of the purposes of teacher evaluation*, goals to be achieved, and ends to be accomplished.
2. *Development or improvement of forms to be used*—items selected, subdivisions, applicability, inclusiveness, terminology, weighting, and sufficient understanding.

3. Removal of any items to which there is valid objection and difficulty in applying.
4. Development or improvement in evaluation procedure—determination of who should rate, teacher self-rating, joint rating, frequency, pupil-rating.
5. Use of many forms of evidence—records, many visits, conferences, testimonials, tests, and lay judgments.
6. Inclusion of all aspects of the work of the teachers: classroom, school and community activities, and extra assignments.
7. Recognition of individual differences in all teachers, working conditions, subjects, environment, health of teachers, and pupil growth and achievement.
8. Recognition of peculiar personal and professional attributes of teachers which may have any bearing on teaching success. Since teacher growth is of such great importance in personnel administration, every effort should be made to bring it about, with impartial elimination or transfer of the unfit and ill-adapted.
9. Respect for the personality of teachers is of vital importance. This means, of course, all attributes of personality, as health, emotional considerations, spiritual living. The hazards of insecurity, unhappiness, and poor attitudes should give way to the assurances of creativity, confidence, teaching power, professional growth, and spiritual power.
10. The positive approach should be characteristic of the administration of any plan of teacher evaluation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give several illustrations in which you have passed judgment on others within recent weeks. Analyze each situation. What measures did you use to arrive at your judgments? Were they sound? Would you revise them in light of more mature understanding?
2. How were the teachers of a past generation appraised? Were these appraisals sound? Would you still use these methods today?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using pupils' opinions as measures of teacher success? Illustrate.
4. Review the several definitions of evaluation stated on pp. 300 ff. Compare these with other authorities.
5. Make a list of the purposes of evaluation. What different methods should be applied in each instance? Illustrate.
6. Compare the several methods of evaluation suggested on pp. 305-310. Evaluate each.

7. Gather several score cards and rating forms and compare. What do you find?
8. Have methods of appraisal in fields other than education any desirable features education can use? Illustrate.
9. Interview a group of teachers as to attitudes and objections toward rating in any form. Tabulate results. To what extent are these replies justifiable?
10. Why is it difficult to reconcile the theory of teaching with actual practice in most classrooms? What effect does this have on rating? Illustrate.
11. Critically analyze the group concept of teacher evaluation.
12. Write out your own feelings in regard to this chapter. What conclusions have you reached? Are they sound? Can the objections to it be overcome? What is the future of teacher evaluation?

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P A R T V

Teacher

Welfare

CHAPTER 15

The Teacher's Health

THE stresses and strains of teaching in the modern school require tremendous demands upon the physical and mental reserves of the teachers. By its very complexity and wide varieties of activities, these reserves are drawn upon to such an extent that many teachers do not give the impression of healthy, happy, satisfied persons. Since adjustment plays an important part in the life of a well-regulated individual, it is necessary for those who would teach our children to be adjusted themselves.

This chapter discusses the essentials of a teacher's adequate health adjustment in terms of a balanced personality. The areas presented are (1) the significance of good health, (2) the teacher's physical health, (3) the teacher's mental health, (4) the teacher's spiritual health, and (5) the integrated personality.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF GOOD HEALTH

Good Health Essential to One's Highest Attainments

Perhaps it is trite to remark that good health is essential to the realization of one's highest attainments. One points to those who enjoy good health because they are vigorous, vibrant, and happy, well-adjusted persons, living to a ripe old age and enjoying life as they live. Generally speaking, those who have contributed much to our society have enjoyed good health. However, there are notable exceptions. There are those who have risen to attainment in spite of poor health or some physical impediment.

Teaching makes strenuous demands on the health and energies of the teacher, not only because of the demands of the classroom, but because of the numerous activities which have been added to

his responsibilities. While these may not necessarily require great physical exertion, they make many demands on his mental, emotional, and spiritual reserves because of the strains and stresses of the occasions with which they are associated. One's physical, mental, and emotional characteristics are all interrelated, each influencing the other. The essence of attainment, as the Greeks long ago discovered, is predicated on a sound mind in a sound body, well balanced and adjusted to the varying needs of the situation. Thus the mind is freed for action, being sustained by physical energy, directed by spiritual insight, and controlled by emotional balance. Any satisfying conception of abundant living is hardly possible without sound health in all its aspects. This statement especially applies to the teaching profession.

Meaning of Health

Good health then might be characterized as the realization of the highest attainment of the individual through the maximum development of his physical, mental, emotional, social, and spiritual possibilities. Thus considered, it is a means to an end, a condition for achieving greater usefulness and happiness in living. The healthy body performs its functions and activities without interference through pain, discomfort, or loss of its members, being resistant to disease and having powers of resilience and recuperation. The healthy mind is a state of well-being, buoyed by energies of the physical body, confident in mental mastery, and balanced by serenity of soul and spirit. One might characterize good health in terms of a well adjusted vibrant personality, meeting each situation successfully with courage and enthusiasm.

More specifically, the characteristics of a healthy person may be expressed in terms of (1) well physical body which radiates personality, (2) vigor which expresses itself in energy and vitality, (3) good posture and locomotion, (4) absence of fatigue, (5) sense of well-being, relaxed, happy, tensionless, and balanced, (6) clear eyes and other facial attributes, absence of hindering defects, and (7) care of the body as in wholesome food, sleep, elimination, and recreation.

Because of the nature of the teaching profession, these characteristics have particular application to teachers. With good physical health, the teacher can enjoy good mental health, manifested by

clear thinking, self-confidence, courage, love of truth, intelligence, and happiness. The healthy teacher meets problems courageously. His emotional responses are adequate to the occasion. There is a minimum of worry, fear, shyness, use of sarcasm, broodiness, and morbidity. He is intellectually honest, socially minded, interested in his profession, and maintains a sense of responsibility appropriate to his station.¹

Importance of the Teacher's Health

Consideration of the teacher's health should be approached from two points of view: (1) concern for the health and welfare of the teacher, and (2) concern for the health of his pupils.

The teacher's concern for good health begins with himself as a person. While self preservation may operate as a law of nature, each person desires to attain the best expression of himself as a personality. Since there is such a close relationship between good health and personality, especially in teaching, both must be given due emphasis. In maintaining one's health, there are economic considerations concerning which the low salaried teacher should be well aware, such as high cost of illness, effects of disabilities, and necessary health protection. Teachers are well aware of the relation of good health to efficiency, as indicated when a well adjusted teacher performs his daily tasks unburdened by pain, worry, fatigue, morbidity, or other discomforts. Good health is a potent factor in good morale, creativeness, poise, cooperation, and exercise of common sense. The teacher's attitudes toward teaching, his pupils, his school, his colleagues, and his home and his family may be directly affected by the quality of his own health and vigor. Perhaps the effect of his health may extend beyond himself and his pupils to the community he serves and to the profession at large. While there may be conditions of personal health over which he has no control, there is much that he can do for himself through his own efforts.

As Terman² so aptly pointed out in his pioneer book on the teacher's health, the health of the school child is so closely related

¹ The student will find a more elaborate discussion of the significance of teacher health in National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, *Fit to Teach, Ninth Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1938, pp. 2-7.

² Lewis M. Terman, *The Teacher's Health*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.

to the health of the teacher that it is a matter of first importance to maintain good health in teachers for the sake of the children. Children may be directly influenced by the health of the teacher through his own example and professional approach. At the same time any impairment in the physical health of the teacher is reflected directly and indirectly in the children, examples being contagion, nervous reactions, low health standards, poor attitudes, and bad health habits. Children of emotionally unstable teachers tend to react in a similar manner.³ Children tend to imitate those about them, being influenced by those characteristics which leave forcible impressions.

THE TEACHER'S PHYSICAL HEALTH

General Impressions

It is unfortunate that characterizations of the teacher in the past do not reveal a virile and pleasing personality. Caricatures of teachers expressed in terms of the drawn face and knitted brow, lean and ill fed, nervous and irritable, have done much to create an erroneous impression in the minds of the general public. While teaching has not attracted the most likely young people physically, much has been done to maintain desirable health standards at the point of selection and to remedy defects during preparation.

It must be admitted that probably not more than one teacher in four enjoys what may be termed excellent health. About one out of two enjoys good health. Such statements should be viewed as relative depending upon what standards are applied. There appears to be little difference between age groups in this respect. However, men tend to be healthier than women, if judged by their own statements, and their record of absences. Since teaching is largely a women's profession, absences of teachers due to illness are more commonly those which may be associated with the female sex.

Nature of Physical Disorders

Many studies have been reported of the health disorders of teachers.⁴ Earlier studies ranked respiratory diseases first among causes of absences, which included colds, grippe, tonsillitis, and associated

³ Compare Paul L. Boynton and others, "The Emotional Stability of Teachers and Pupils," *Journal of Juvenile Research*, October, 1934, pp. 223-232.

⁴ *Fit to Teach*, op. cit., pp. 28 ff.

conditions. This led to the conclusion that these diseases constituted an occupational health hazard for teachers, until it was shown they were also common to other occupational groups. Tuberculosis was once a common illness among teachers, but has declined with modern advances in the treatment of this disease. Physicians who examine teachers report the highest-ranking health disorders to be those of the (1) heart and circulatory system, (2) nervous system, (3) endocrine glands, (4) special sense organs, (5) respiratory system, (6) digestive system, (7) genito-urinary system, and (8) general debility. Teachers themselves rank the following as typical of their health disorders: (1) colds, (2) constipation, (3) nervousness, (4) headache, (5) sore throat, (6) backache, (7) sleeplessness, (8) digestive disorders, (9) eye trouble, (10) menstrual disorders, and (11) fatigue.

There appear to be some slight changes in the ranking of disorders as affected by advancing age and sex. In later years throat conditions, heart disturbances, rheumatism, arthritis, and digestive disturbances occur with greater frequency. Many of these do not necessitate school absence. Of those that do, the following are the chief offenders: (1) colds, (2) influenza, (3) throat infections, (4) accidents, (5) digestive disorders, and (6) menstrual disorders. Physical handicaps which affect the teachers' work appear in order to be (1) defective vision, (2) feet and leg conditions, and (3) defective hearing. It should be noted that teachers generally have not been accustomed to absent themselves from duty unless the disorder is such as to necessitate it. This real incapacity has been due to several factors, (1) loyalty of many teachers to their classrooms and other obligations, (2) fear of loss of salary where provision has not been made for it, (3) unwillingness to submit to a physical examination or otherwise secure medical assistance, (4) inadequate provision for substitute service, especially if the substitute is incompetent, and (5) inadequate sick leave and welfare provisions. Great progress has been made in teacher welfare, such as hospitalization, health insurance, compensation, and many types of benefits. As an outcome, the health of the teacher has constantly improved, and his attitude and efficiency have become more favorable. Much depends on the consideration given by the school authorities in the administration of health regulations designed for these purposes, especially those under school control.

On an average, about one teacher in twenty is ineligible for life insurance. The principal defects in this connection are (1) heart conditions, (2) glandular conditions, (3) underweight, (4) tuberculosis, and (5) genito-urinary diseases. About one teacher in three uses eyeglasses part or all of the time. This should not be classed as a disorder, but undoubtedly is an occupational hazard. Teachers generally give attention to the condition of their teeth. Persistent worry has considerable effect on some physical disorders. Serious physical disorders are likely to affect efficiency. There is also a certain relation between poor teaching conditions and their effects on the teacher's physical and mental health.

One might conclude that while teachers suffer as a group from certain physical disorders which may be termed in part occupational, these disorders are similar to conditions in other occupations. It cannot be said that teaching represents serious occupational hazards. It can be said that the physical health of teachers is improving with better selection, improved working conditions, advances in medical science, and improved personal health habits and regimen. Perhaps the key to teachers' physical health is an improved attitude towards his own problems and their solution.

Fatigue

Lassitude or weariness commonly known as fatigue may be an important factor in the teacher's health. Fatigue is an external sign of a causal situation which may have its manifestations in various ways, such as physical weariness, failure to observe accurately, letting things go by unheeded, drowsiness, and impairment of balance. Fatigue may be directly due to low vitality with correspondingly lowered resistance, effects of disease, mental and emotional strains, and effects of drugs, alcohol, or degeneracy. Fatigue may be the result of overwork (physical and/or mental), loss of sleep, strenuous mode of living, shock, and the tensions of one's environment. Since fatigue is the evidence of lack of physical and mental balance in some form, the proper approach is to remove the cause and bring the physical body with its mental controls into greater harmony with the tasks to be accomplished. This means that one must know his own strengths and weaknesses, his bounds and his limitations. The problem is not so much in combating what goes on about us as to utilize one's own resources to the greatest possible advantage.

Other Factors Affecting Teacher Health

Significant factors affecting teacher health has been revealed in numerous studies.⁵ Liberal provisions for teacher absence tend to produce more absences for health reasons than those with limited provisions. Absence for illness appears greater among married than single women and among single than married men. Illnesses of teachers steadily increase with age. There is no relationship between illnesses and experience, rating, education, salary or teaching conditions respectively. First-grade teachers have greater absences than sixth-grade teachers. High-school teachers average less absence than elementary teachers (ratio 2:3). Monday appears to be the principal day for teacher absence for illness with a gradual decrease for the rest of the week.

HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

Nature

For many years larger school systems have conducted health examinations for teachers. The early studies by the United States Office of Education⁶ pointed out that many school systems were giving greater attention to the health of teachers through periodic health examinations. All teacher education institutions require such an examination with attention paid to remedial defects. Causes of rejection of teachers may pertain to those physical conditions which may interfere with efficiency as a teacher, as for example unsightly blemishes, under- or overweight, defective vision or hearing, neck or chest disorders such as tuberculosis, heart disease, and nervous conditions. Certificates of health are required by the laws of all states. Much difficulty arises in interpreting the degree of the physical condition observed, as it might pertain to any of the above. Many teachers are unwilling to admit a condition even where evidence is indicated in an examination. In case of a defect, its duration is more likely to be more protracted as teachers advance in years, and hence more evident to others.

⁵ These studies have been reviewed in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 1433-1436.

⁶ James Frederick Rogers, "The Welfare of the Teachers," Bulletin no. 4, U.S. Office of Education, 1934. See also 1926 study.

Promotion of Good Health

Much has been done by school systems to promote good health among their teachers. There has been a marked improvement in hygiene conditions. Free consultation service is provided. Health and sick-leave regulations are now generally available, together with health, accident, and illness insurance. Sabbatical leave is important in many cases and is productive of good results. Changes in any form within the system have an important effect on teachers where health factors are concerned. Malingering among teachers, sometimes quite common, disappears for the most part in the presence of an enlightened program of teacher health and security. Much, however, depends on the teacher himself, who should guard his health, discover his defects early, and do something about them.

THE TEACHER'S MENTAL HEALTH

The Approach

It is the common belief that the physical illnesses of mankind are directly attributable to some physical cause, such as bacteria in any form, a growth, bodily abuse, accidents, or physical changes due to environmental conditions, or bodily deterioration. Physical medicine diagnoses the nature of the illness, determines the physical cause, and treats it accordingly. Normally, such diagnosis and treatment are quite common and highly defensible. The concept that mental and emotional factors play a significant role in health deviation is of more recent origin, although the Greeks long ago clearly understood this relationship in proclaiming the importance of a sound mind in a sound body. There is now ample evidence that psychological and emotional disturbances play an important part in the etiology of many illnesses.⁷ Consequently, the study of mental and emotional as well as physical factors with respect to health disorders is of great significance in understanding and treatment.

The term "psychosomatic medicine" has been applied to this field of interest. It rests in the theory that both physical and psychical factors should be studied in connection with physical illnesses, being

⁷ An excellent treatment of this subject will be found in Helen Flanders Dunbar, *Emotions and Bodily Changes*, New York, Columbia University Press, 3d ed., 1946.

given equal consideration, with methods applied appropriate to each area.⁸ Moreover, treatment is sought in areas beyond the psychological, such as the social and spiritual.

Meaning of Mental Health

Good mental health might best be defined in terms of satisfying individual adjustments to conditions and situations within his environment. These adjustments should be satisfying both to the individual and the social group of which he may be for the moment associated, to the end that mutual happiness prevails. Since happiness is characterized by its manifestations, one looks for such desirable qualities in an individual as good humor, serenity, love of the beautiful and the good, patience, spontaneity, and initiative. These must be associated in some manner with others, as with one's family, social group, professional associates or pupils. Happiness has been termed the "temperature" of mental health. It represents a certain maturity in which the manifestations listed above are easily identified. One should not be led to conclude that satisfying adjustments occasion no conflicts; rather that skill and experience in exercising appropriate therapeutic controls when not in equipoise returns the individual promptly to his adjusted balance. Since overcoming obstacles develops power and greater skill, the individual thereby emerges a strengthened victor.

Unwholesome Mental Conditions

Many of the unwholesome mental attitudes which affect teachers' mental health may be easily identified. These are (1) *retreat from reality*, a common form of ill health among teachers revealed in the form of blaming others, lack of personal appreciation, rationalization, adherence to old prejudices, excessive anxiety, pessimism, or self-pity; (2) *worry*, usually over the commonplace and through magnifying details through a distorted imagination; (3) *isolationism*, social withdrawal based on some real or fancied insult; (4) *feelings of inferiority and inadequacy*, occasioned by timidity, oversensitiveness, jealousy, melancholy, or sometimes by the reverse of

⁸ For a review of the scientific bases for acceptance of the psychosomatic concept, see National Education Association, American Educational Research Association, "Mental and Physical Health," *Review of Educational Research*, December, 1949, pp. 372-373. See also Dunbar, *op. cit.*

these as in bullying and sarcasm; (5) *overemphasis on the trivial*, in which the individual seems unable to distinguish between the significant and the trivial, thus lacking a proper sense of values; (6) *moroseness*, manifested by chronic dissatisfaction, disappointment, concentration on one's illnesses, difficulties, and problems (this person is always unhappy); (7) *an aging mind*, characterized by smugness with self, loss of interest in the affairs of others, engrossment with material things, and prejudice; (8) *irritability*, easily provoked, nothing pleases; (9) *insincerity*, neither trustworthy nor trusting others, one of the significant aspects of mental ill health; and (10) *fear*, a common symptom of maladjustment which may be present in any of the above manifestations in varying degrees; in fact it may be common to all of them.⁹

These emotional patterns may be present in varying degrees, perhaps with two or more associated with each other. Their manifestations may be accompanied by physical disorders in some form, which if long continued tend to become chronic, perhaps permanently affecting the organic structure of the individual. Great difficulty may be experienced in determining the initial causal condition, perhaps because of unwillingness to admit to it. More than likely some physical condition is the resultant, since the physical body now governed by tensions and fears is thrown off balance with harmful results. The mental attitude may be directly affected by a physical condition or defect, as homeliness, an injury, or some physical imperfection. Emotional stress seriously interferes with the ability of the physical body to regain its equilibrium, especially if long continued. For this reason psychosomatic medicine is helpful in understanding both aspects.

Attention should be called to those desirable emotional patterns which work in harmony with healthy bodily functions. These promote health, sanity, serenity, and happiness, and which, if properly substituted for unwholesome emotional patterns, can bring about

⁹ *Fit to Teach, op. cit.*, pp. 82-84. Dunbar, *op. cit.*, p. 10, points out that unwholesome emotions are the negative expression of one or more of the following types: self-preservation, sexuality, group preservation and humanity, universe, and God. She points out that proneness is an important factor in regard to the emotions as fear develops proneness to accident, and a birthmark develops proneness to isolationism. The reader should compare the types and manifestations of abnormal mental behavior as analyzed by Herbert A. Carroll, *Mental Hygiene*, New York, Prentice-Hall, 1947, esp. chaps. 8, 9.

the elimination of undesirable situations. Desirable emotional patterns include hopefulness, feeling of confidence, assurance, cheerfulness, joy, firmness, optimism, ability to face realities, feelings of accomplishment, and love.¹⁰

Mental Disorders

Conditions may arise among teachers where the mental condition becomes serious enough to require psychiatric treatment or hospitalization. Quite often it is difficult to recognize its serious nature. Certain embarrassment in identification and treatment may be indicated which has serious personal and social consequences. The individual welfare of the children in such cases should have first consideration. The teacher should be rehabilitated if possible; if not, he should be removed promptly from the classroom.

Klein¹¹ has identified the numbers and types of mental diseases which have necessitated admittance to an institution. Those suffering from some form of psychosis include more than twenty different manifestations of which schizophrenia represents about 20 per cent. In those without psychosis, alcoholism ranks highest. Fortunately with modern care and newer treatments, there is a high percentage of recovery or improvement in such cases. Since these figures include only those hospitalized, there is no record of those who are not. Some of the larger city school districts are now requiring frequent mental examinations of such teachers and insisting on treatment or removal from the classroom. Unfortunately, even with recovery, the effectiveness of the teacher may be reduced or nullified because of social implications or partial recurrence. Much can be done through rigid selection before entrance to eliminate the prospective teacher prone to such disorders. Many early manifestations can now be identified as likely to affect mental health and personality.

IMPROVEMENT OF MENTAL HEALTH

Peculiar Effects of Teaching on Mental Health

Teaching as a profession is featured by conditions which have a peculiar effect on the mental health of those who engage in it.

¹⁰ Compare I Corinthians 13.

¹¹ D. B. Klein, *Mental Hygiene*, New York, Henry Holt & Company, 1944, chap. 5.

Since teaching is a relatively low-salaried profession, there is always the problem of economic insecurity. Tenure is not yet available to all teachers. The expectation of an adequate retirement allowance is not particularly satisfying. Heavy teaching burdens, repressive autocratic supervision, no supervision, social restrictions, peculiar public attitudes, pressures of maintaining discipline, association with immature minds, dulling routines, and trivial irritations are aspects of a profession which must be surmounted by the teacher. As some would point out, these differ little from similar conditions in other professions. However, they are present in teaching and must be met courageously.

Administrative Procedures

Much can be accomplished through an enlightened administration in improving the mental health of teachers. Naturally the first point of attack is an individual one, to understand the nature and problems of each teacher. An efficient health service should be available to each teacher as needed. In urgent cases teachers, if unwilling, should be required to submit to a health examination and treatment. The physical conditions essential to good teaching within the control of the administration should receive consideration, such as adjusted teaching load and hygienic conditions. Democratic leadership accompanied by a pleasing personality creates an atmosphere which will dissipate unwholesome conditions before they arise. There is no substitute for a friendly sympathetic personal contact in the presence of need.

The Teacher's Part

Much that has been said in regard to maintaining the teacher's physical health applies as well in regard to mental health. There is no substitute for sound hygienic living, one that emphasizes the role of the positive aspect of emotional balance and resulting energy, power, and poise. A satisfying philosophy of life is the task of each teacher to maintain: one in which adjustments and attitudes are satisfying as to himself, his associates, his fellow man, and his God. His life should be dominated by worthy objectives, enthusiastically centered. He should overcome dawdling, daydreaming, and egocentrism. He should take pride and satisfaction in his daily work and labor constantly for his own as well as the profession's im-

provement. He should take pride in the success of others, seeking their welfare. He should strive constantly for success; be modest in its achievement, and contented if otherwise. He should be busy rather than overworked, facing realities courageously, recognizing that there are some things in life over which he may not be able to prevail. Problems insurmountable today may disappear easily tomorrow. His life should exemplify orderliness, promptness, accuracy, common sense in all things, varied interest, sense of humor, self-control, and a sense of loveliness. In all of this there is evidence of the all-pervading love of and dependence upon an omniscient and omnipotent God.

THE TEACHER'S SPIRITUAL HEALTH

The all-pervading influence of those great spiritual values that have persisted through time are imparted by great teachers through superior creative teaching. These values persist long after knowledges are forgotten and skills dull with time. In fact great teachers influence more by the spiritual values they teach and exemplify than by emphasis upon any other aspect of teaching.¹² It is a permeating influence, impossible to measure quantitatively, yet remains to influence the life and character of their pupils. Perhaps it is the life and example of the Great Teacher himself that have given such prominence to these influences.

Spiritual health is an essential characteristic of a healthy teacher. Along with sound physical, mental, and emotional health, it rounds out the qualities essential to great teaching. The spiritual aspects of life are not necessarily identified with any specific form of religious worship, or with any ritual or creed. While teachers may differ in their religious experiences, they share a common spiritual bond which transcends all credal differences. Spiritual health is a "saving experience of inner spiritual devotion and daily spiritual power, which comes as a result of, and allegiance to, a power above, transcending the individual, and taking him out of himself."¹³

Spiritual health is the essence of physical and mental health, for by its presence and influence, the defects of the body and the mind

¹² The reader will find numerous evidences of this statement in Houston Peterson, ed., *Great Teachers*, New Brunswick, N.J. Rutgers University Press, 1946. This is a portrayal of the lives of twenty-two great teachers by their own pupils.

¹³ *Fit to Teach, op. cit.*, p. 103.

may be overcome. Down through the ages men who have accomplished great things have been impelled by great spiritual power, producing a driving force which overcomes obstacles. Such is the significance of spiritual health in the life of the teacher.

Its Manifestations

Spiritual health in teaching is best characterized by its manifestations. Since teaching is a service to mankind, the teacher emphasizes giving rather than receiving, obtaining true happiness thereby. Spiritual health is revealed in a certain buoyancy, a courage to face realities, cheerful willingness, eager initiative, and enthusiasm to meet and solve new problems. Spiritual health is manifested by a sublime inner control, in which serenity, peace of mind, and absence of conflict are obvious. Spiritual health is reflected in good classroom management and pupil contacts, one in which a classroom becomes "a pleasant place to be." Spiritual health enables one to check upon his own sense of values, with a willingness to change for the better. Spiritual health seems in life the principle of balance; it applies love of the true, the beautiful and the good. It recognizes the sovereign power of the Creator of all things with daily contact with Him through prayer and meditation. Spiritual health is noted by an absence of fear, anger, prejudice, pessimism, melancholy, inferiority, insincerity, irritability, laziness, selfishness, and excesses in any form. A teacher whose spiritual health is sound loves boys and girls, his teaching, and his profession. He is ever conscious that his life is a service to others and an example of great potency. Somehow radiating from such a teacher is a buoyant power, enabling him to overcome his physical and mental imperfections, to remain undisturbed by meanness in any form, and capable of radiating inexhaustible influence for good to those about him.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. To what extent is the statement true that "good health is essential for one's highest attainments"? Are there exceptions? Illustrate.
2. Find and compare several definitions of good health. What differences do you notice? Explain.
3. What is the nature of a teacher's concern for good health (a) in himself, (b) his pupils? Be specific.
4. Compare the analysis of a teacher's physical health as indicated in the chapter with other studies as found in the literature.

5. Make a study of the records in your school system in order to ascertain the causes of absence due to physical health.
6. What physical handicaps, if any, should bar a teacher from the profession? How should they be determined?
7. What is fatigue? How is it manifested? What are its effects?
8. Find and compare several definitions of (a) mental health, (b) mental hygiene.
9. Make a list of unwholesome conditions to be found in a selected school system which might have some effect on a teacher's mental health.
10. What is the responsibility of each of the following as to the mental health of teachers: (a) administration? (b) teacher? (c) community?
11. Find and compare several definitions of spiritual health. What is its relation to mental and physical health?
12. Characterize selected teachers who may approach the highest qualifications of balanced physical, mental, and spiritual health.

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The Teacher's Economic Status

WRITING more than three decades ago, Burgess¹ declared that the two dollars and fifty cents which the young woman teaching in a rural school received for a week's work in 1841 was a very different sum of money from that received by a teacher in recent years. What he meant were the great differences in the value of the dollar. Its purchasing power was quite different. While it would buy more milk, beef, potatoes, and other farm products, it would actually buy less of many of those articles in the manufacture of which machine work has now replaced the laborer's hand process. Interestingly enough, contemporary students of teachers' salaries write of the low salaries of teachers, low purchasing power, and correspondingly lowered standards of living. There is a definite relationship between salary standards and standards of living, and an equal relationship between salaries and social attitudes toward what a teacher should receive. However, teaching as a profession has advanced with improvement in economic status. While much has been accomplished, much remains to be done before teaching can rank with other professions economically and hence socially. With economic advancement will come a better quality in teachers and teaching. The great objective then is to attain for the teaching profession economic respectability sufficient for the necessities and a few of the luxuries of desirable social living.

This chapter begins with a brief historical account of the economic status of the teacher. Most of the chapter is concerned with teachers' salaries, factors determining salary levels, and trends in salary scheduling. Because of inadequate income and the economic

¹ W. Randolph Burgess, *Trends of School Costs*, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1920, p. 46.

demands of family living, many teachers have resorted to various forms of supplemental income. The economic status of teachers has been affected by problems of retirement, insurance, credit, and social security. Much has been accomplished in overcoming apathy and even a hostile attitude on the part of the public toward economic advancement for teachers. The chapter closes with a section devoted to the improvement of the teaching profession due largely to an improved economic status.

HISTORICAL APPROACH TO THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF TEACHERS

Economic Handicaps

The lowly origin of teaching has been one of its greatest handicaps economically. The Greek pedagogue (slave) and the colonial teacher, more often an indentured servant, were both cheap commodities. They were easily subject to economic discrimination largely because they were classed as "unproductive" workers, and because little value was attached to an education unless it was for the ministry. Little social significance was attached to mass education. There was work to do and little regard for time spent aside from manual labor and its accompanying skills. Even as late as 1840, women city teachers received a lower weekly wage than common laborers,² which condition had not improved greatly by 1919.

While the above statements regarding teachers' wages applied generally, there were notable exceptions in areas where education began to attain value and where schoolmasters demonstrated ability and influence. This was particularly true in New England. Ways and means were found to recompense teachers other than in currency which was scarce at best. Methods used were board and lodging, food and supplies, livestock, grain, tobacco, and other commodities, gardens, and in some instances housing.³

Other Means of Livelihood

Certain favors assisted in easing the strain of the impecunious schoolmaster. Often he was relieved of certain forms of taxation.

² Burgess, *op. cit.*, p. 49. Compare Lester Dix, *The Economic Basis for the Teachers' Wage*, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, pp. 9-10.

³ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 9.

He could collect tuition from his pupils under certain conditions. Gifts on certain occasions were most welcome. The typical schoolmaster had other forms of livelihood. Often he was the town scribe, since few knew how to read and write. If he had a trade which could be turned to productive labor, he was in demand as he was skilled. In some churches he was the choirmaster, and in others even the minister. Occasionally, he received the proceeds of certain funds, as rentals from town land and other funds set aside for the purpose. Borrowing was not uncommon and many schoolmasters found themselves perennially in debt. As this condition was more often due to arrears in salary payments and social disregard for his economic welfare, one can hardly blame the schoolmaster for his impecuniosity unless he imbibed too freely or neglected to observe strict social usages.

Men and Women Teachers

It should be borne in mind, however, that it was only the unusual schoolmaster who devoted long years to his profession as did the minister. The typical schoolmaster considered his occupation a "stepping stone" to other professions and activities, as the law. Hence his energies and his savings, if any, were often directed toward the attainment of other ambitions. Annual increments as they began to appear did stimulate many teachers to remain. Great educational leaders, as Horace Mann, began to give greater respectability to teaching and did much to raise its social as well as its economic level. Female teachers received a lower wage, being taken advantage of in this respect by niggardly school boards. As they increased in numbers, the problems of raising the economic and social status of teachers generally were accentuated. The patrons of the school were less hospitable on the whole to female than male teachers who boarded around, due to the feeling that female teachers required more attention, and were generally more troublesome to the housewives. Perhaps the good housewife may have felt a little sentimental apprehensiveness, even if such were hardly possible in the strict code of the day. Some writers⁴ even attribute the abolition of boarding around to the increase in the number of women teachers.

⁴ Compare Elsbree, *op. cit.*, p. 289.

Economic Changes

Many economic changes took place as an outcome of the Civil War and following. It was the occasion for the entry of large numbers of women into teaching, a situation which had the immediate effect of depressing teachers' salaries. Economic conditions were subject to great variation. Depression followed closely on the heels of prosperity. The value of the dollar depended on its scarcity, as did teachers and their salaries. While public schools gradually became mandatory, compulsory attendance followed. However the value of mass education was yet unrealized and there was still much work to do. Men teachers found greater opportunities elsewhere, especially those with business and executive ability. The salaries of those men who did remain in the profession were usually about twice as much as women teachers, rural teachers receiving by far the least wage.

Gradually, however, the economic condition of teachers began to improve. As the wages of common laborers and skilled workmen increased, the level of teachers' wages rose, until by 1890 the weekly wage of teachers was as follows: rural men, \$11.30, rural women, \$8.55, city men, \$32.62, and city women, \$13.16.⁵ It is obvious that salaries such as these hardly contributed materially in nurturing teaching into becoming a learned profession.

Since 1900 the economic position of the teacher has constantly advanced. By 1920 the average annual earnings of teachers approximated one thousand dollars. It rose to \$1263 in 1925, and \$1420 in 1930. These figures show a great increase in teachers' salaries to 1930.⁶ However, consideration must be given to the purchasing value of the dollar and wide fluctuations among men and women, and city and rural teachers. Especially marked was the improvement in the economic status of city teachers. Feelings of elation in these marked improvements in the economic position of teachers should be tempered with a proper understanding of the low eco-

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 431-432. The corrected weekly wage in purchasing power is as follows: Rural men, \$18.08; rural women, \$13.68; city men, \$52.19; and city women, \$21.05.

⁶ Two studies of primary significance are available for comparison of teachers' salaries: Burgess, *op. cit.*, and Paul H. Douglas, *Real Wages in the United States 1890-1926*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930; consult also Elsbree, *op. cit.*, chap. 29.

nomic position from which teachers have arisen. Perhaps teachers themselves have been much to blame. Few teachers before 1920 bore the earmarks of a member of a learned profession, if measured by such factors as preparation, skill in teaching, and professional attitudes. It is interesting to note that the professionalization of teaching has advanced with its economic position.

CURRENT ECONOMIC STATUS OF TEACHERS

Significant Studies

The economic status of teachers has received more attention perhaps than any other aspect of the personnel function, especially since 1930. The National Education Association has been an outstanding leader in the movement to raise the professional level of teaching through its economic return. This has necessitated action through state associations, state legislatures, and local influences. Significant studies have brought together much information which has been made available for the profession and the public through popular means as the newspapers and the radio. The rapid introduction of mandated salary schedules liberally supported by the state, coupled with more generous teaching rewards in more favored school districts have been influential factors in raising both teachers' salaries and teaching standards.

Comparisons with Earnings of Other Groups

The inadequacy of teachers' salaries should be considered in terms of meaningful comparisons with earnings of other groups. Several tables have been included in order to clarify the current economic status of teachers for comparative purposes. Table 8 points out the average annual salaries of teachers for the calendar year as compared with average annual earnings of all employed persons working for wages and salaries since 1930, and with three groups of such employees. The table shows that there has been a steady increase in the income of these groups since that year, each on about the same ratio, with the exception of farm employees. Since teaching is a profession, many teachers naturally object to wage and salary comparisons with these groups, largely on the basis of preparation and professional standards which they must maintain.

TABLE 8. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARY OF TEACHERS AS COMPARED WITH
AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS IN OTHER OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS,
1930-1950^a

Year	Average Salary of Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors for Calendar Year	Average Annual Earnings for Full-Time Employee Working for Wages or Salaries			
		All Em- ployed Persons	Farm Employ- ees	Manufac- turing Employ- ees	Govern- ment Em- ployees
1930	1425	1380	406	1488	1554
1935	1255	1153	308	1216	1293
1939 ^b	1420	1269	378	1363	1339
1940	1450	1306	390	1432	1349
1945	1900	2207	1093	2517	2097
1950	3020	3024	1302	3303	3045
1951	3095	—	—	—	—
1952	3290	—	—	—	—

^a National Education Association, Research Division, *Economic Status of Teachers in 1951-1952*, Schools and Current Economic Trends No. 1, 1951, Washington, D.C., November, 1951. Data in tables 9-11 also taken from this report.

^b Base year.

In order to allow for comparison with other professions, three professions have been chosen, namely dentistry, law and medicine. Table 9 shows the marked differences as to economic return be-

TABLE 9. COMPARATIVE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS, AND AVERAGE NET INCOME OF DENTISTS, LAWYERS, AND PHYSICIANS, 1930-1949

Year	Average Annual Salary of		Average Net Income ^a of	
	Teachers	Dentists	Lawyers	Physicians
1930	1425	4020	5194	4870
1935	1255	2485	4272	3685
1939	1420	3096	4391	4228
1940	1450	3314	4507	4441
1945	1900	6922	6861	10975
1949	2890	8083	8083	11744
1950	3020	—	—	—
1952	3290	—	—	—

^a Medians of these salaries are considerably below average salaries.

tween these professions and that of teaching. In 1949, for instance, the average net income of both dentists and lawyers was 300 per

cent, and of physicians 400 per cent, higher than the average annual salaries of teachers, despite the fact that teachers' salaries have more than doubled since 1940. Other comparisons can be noted from the table. Thus the economic return of teaching as a profession is pitifully low when compared with those professions with which it should be classified.

Since these tables are based on average salaries, the average salary of teachers which also includes principals, supervisors, and other instructional personnel, representing (1951-1952) more than one million professional school employees, is the average of some extremely low and some relatively high salaries. Salaries of less than \$1000 a year are still being paid to classroom teachers in some rural schools. With all of its great variation, the average salary is the best single measure to indicate the central tendency in the remuneration of the teaching staff.

Purchasing Power

The value of the dollars one receives in wages or salaries must be considered in terms of the things it will buy. For statistical reasons the purchasing power of \$1.00 is indicated in 1935-1939 dollars. The consumer's price index has been computed over the years from 1913 to the present time. Table 10 points out these significant variations. Thus it would take \$1.88 in 1952 to purchase the same commodities as \$1.00 purchased in 1939; or to put it another way, a 1939 dollar was worth about 53 cents in 1952. While a teacher who received \$1400 in 1939 might receive \$3290 in 1952, this salary is worth, in the same dollars, but \$1750. For example, a pair of shoes that cost \$5.40 in 1939 would have cost \$10.00 in September, 1951, if shoe prices had gone up by the same proportion as the average for all prices. This variation in prices of certain necessities purchased by all teachers is pointed out in Table 11. Food increased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times, apparel and home furnishings more than double, and all items about double in this twenty-two-year period. Rents because of controls increased only about 30 per cent. Prices vary among cities, between urban and rural areas, and at different seasons of the year. One's tastes determine partly how he spends his income. For example, there are great variations in the prices of clothing, automobiles, and homes. Living at home, having a garden, size of family, wife employed, and other part-time employment all spell

a great difference. Part-time employment is common both during the school year as well as during the summer.

TABLE IO. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS, CONSUMERS PRICE INDEX, AND PURCHASING POWER OF DOLLAR, 1915-1952
(by five-year periods)

Year	Average Salary of Teachers	Calendar Year Basis		School Year Basis	
		Purchasing Power in 1935-1939 Dollars	(1935-1939 equals 100.0)	Consumers Price Index Index (1935-1939)	Purchasing power of \$1.00 (in 1935-1939 Dollars)
1915	543	752		72.5	1.38
1920	871	623		143.3	0.618
1925	1252	1011		125.4	0.797
1930	1420	1169		119.4	0.838
1935	1244	1277		98.1	1.019
1939	1408	1416		99.4	1.006
1940	1441	1440		100.2	0.998
1945	1846	1448		128.6	0.778
1950	2980	1760		171.9	0.582
1952	3290	1750		188.0 ^a	0.532 ^a

^a Estimated.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF PURCHASING POWER OF THE TEACHER'S DOLLAR FOR CERTAIN NECESSITIES
(Consumer's Price Index, 1939-1951)

	August 15, 1939 (One month before war in Europe)	June, 1946 (One month before lifting price con- trols)	Sep- tember 15, 1951
All items	98.6	133.3	186.6
Food	93.5	145.6	227.3
Apparel	100.3	157.2	209.0
Rent	104.3	108.5	137.5
Fuel, electricity, and refrigeration	97.5	110.5	144.4
House furnishings	100.6	156.1	211.1
Miscellaneous	100.4	127.9	166.0

Most Teachers are Employed Part-Time

Most teachers are employed for a nine- or ten-month school term with salaries contracted for on the school term basis. Thus, monthly salary payments beginning with September and terminating with May leave these teachers with three months without salary unless payments are spread over the twelve months. Under the latter arrangement the teacher receives the same salary, part being withheld each month.

Summary

In summary it is obvious that the teacher's economic position is less favorable than before World War II. Teachers' salaries have not increased proportionately compared with wages and salaries of other employed persons. Of greater significance is the real question as to what amount is necessary to maintain a professional level of compensation for the teacher. Is the economic standard of income of the lawyer, the doctor, and the dentist a fair basis, or is there some other economic standard by which a desirable salary level can be maintained? Is the present trend toward supplementary income through part-time employment, wife employment, and other means desirable? Will the public support adequate salaries for teachers both as to local and state support as well as enthusiastic encouragement?

SALARY SCHEDULES*The Problem*

The employment of teachers has traditionally been an individual matter between the teacher and the board of education. It led to many abuses. The free operation of the law of supply and demand too often worked against the teacher, and as a result against the children. It was necessary to find some method to provide a better basis of understanding between employer and employee which might form a more uniform contractual basis other than of individual bargaining. Economic fluctuations have worked to the teacher's disadvantage and often encouraged better qualified teachers to seek employment elsewhere.

Development of the Salary Schedule

The teacher's salary schedule was developed to provide a solution to this problem. As it developed it seemed to offer protection both to the board of education as well as the teacher. It is difficult to ascertain the origin of teachers' salary schedules. Bicknell advocated their establishment before the National Education Association as early as 1884. By 1905 the Association reported a total of 547 cities having teacher salary schedules. In subsequent reports and studies salary schedules for teachers appear quite common. Evenden, in his classic study, analyzed numerous schedules and felt that sufficient information was then on hand to determine principles of salary scheduling.⁷ Most states have adopted teachers' salary schedules and revised them from time to time. The local school district which does not now have some form of salary schedule is indeed rare. Without doubt the application of the principles now included in teacher salary schedules has been a significant stimulus for the advancement of the profession of teaching.

Purposes and Types

Teachers' salary schedules may be said to serve three main purposes: (1) to attract well prepared and professionally competent new teachers; (2) to encourage continued professional growth in service, and (3) to retain those who have shown the greatest sufficiency. Types of schedules which have been developed bear some relation to these purposes. It will be noted, however, that purposes vary in the diversity of practice. Three types of schedules will be considered briefly; (1) position-type, (2) preparation-type, and (3) merit-type.

POSITION-TYPE. The position-type salary schedule is the oldest form and is based on the assumption that the classification of positions within the school system demands different types of teachers and different levels of preparation. It is based on the theory that the elementary grades, for instance, are easier to teach than junior or senior high school grades. Positions should be classified and remunerated

⁷ National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 1884, p. 49; National Education Association, *Report of Salaries of Public School Teachers*, Part III, 1905; E. S. Evenden, *Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedules*, Commission Series No. 6, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1919, pp. 131-153.

accordingly. Women usually receive less average annual salary than men because of the greater number of women teachers in the elementary schools. The position-type schedule is defended on the basis of need for some objective basis to determine salaries, greater ease of administration, and a widespread belief, still held, that greater preparation and skills in teaching are required as one ascends the educational ladder. Its chief weaknesses lie in the faulty nature of the previous assumption, that it stimulates teachers with initiative to seek higher salaries through ascending the educational ladder and in administration, and that it does not provide for ample rewards to professionally competent teachers in their present positions.

PREPARATION-TYPE (SINGLE SALARY). The teacher's initial preparation is the basis for the determination of the salary level in the preparation-type of schedule. The same salary is paid to all teachers with the same preparation regardless of the position held. Thus it recognizes no distinction as to position, either elementary or secondary. By placing the emphasis on preparation, a stimulus is provided for continuous professional growth through successive levels. Teachers may also, without prejudice, advance in position or shift positions as secondary to elementary, if they prefer or where they may be better fitted, as they meet the preparation standards.

Preparation-type schedules are based upon quantitative measures, such as years or semester hours of preparation, degrees, and years of experience. Advances on the schedule thus become automatic and relatively easy to administer. The tendency is to encourage teachers to raise their levels of preparation, thus serving to develop and retain better teachers, place them without prejudice where they are best fitted, and providing better instruction generally.

The preparation-type (single salary) schedule may now be said to be the prevailing type. Four levels of professional preparation are now generally recognized: (1) teachers without degrees, (2) teachers with the bachelor's degree, (3) teachers with the master's degree, and (4) teachers with the master's degree and additional levels of study. Salary schedules are also provided for supervisors and administrative officers as well as noninstructional staff members.⁸

⁸ Perhaps the best recent study of the single salary schedule was made in 1947 by the National Education Association in an analysis of 452 single salary schedules in the United States (Research Division, "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," *Research Bulletin*, October, 1947).

MERIT-TYPE SCHEDULES. A salary schedule may be developed as a position or preparation type or a combination of both and have within it provisions for placement or advancement in the schedule based on a demonstration of competency (merit). It may take the form of automatic increments up to a certain point with further increment based on some test of competency. Theoretically, such procedure is professionally sound. Teachers are thus rewarded for demonstrations of teaching ability and service. Through this selective process, improved teaching efficiency may be obtained. Practical difficulties are encountered in the administration of such a schedule through accurate and acceptable measures of such competency. Merit rating will be examined at greater length in a later section. In addition, many teachers' salary schedules contain other features which permit supplementary income for various purposes. These will be discussed in the following section.

SUPPLEMENTARY FEATURES OF SALARY SCHEDULES

The Base Salary

The determination of the base salary in the schedule is perhaps its most significant feature. This salary becomes the minimum point upon which a teacher may be placed on the scale. If defined in terms of position and preparation, it is the critical point of acceptance or rejection on the part of a new teacher. When other positions are offered, the teacher has the opportunity of choice, if the economic advantage is greater and teaching conditions satisfactory. Too often the base salary is determined by the standard of living required of a single woman teacher more often living at home, rather than a young married man with family prospects. Moreover, base salaries may lag quite behind the rising cost of living. Salary bonuses, temporary at best, provide some relief.

The tendency is definitely in the direction of increasing the base salary for several reasons: (1) to offset the attraction of higher initial salaries in business and industry, (2) to encourage abler young men and women to enter teaching, (3) to meet demands of teachers for relief when comparing their salaries with other occupations, (4) to meet rising living costs, (5) to arouse public interest in teachers' economic struggles, and (6) to offset the effect of state minimum

salary laws.⁹ As teachers demonstrate greater teaching efficiency, the base salary rises.

Increments

Salary schedules generally provide for a certain number of annual increments based on the theory that each year of service increases the efficiency of the teacher and hence adds value to his services. Naturally there may be a point beyond which increased efficiency reaches a plateau then declines. Thus a limitation is placed on the number of increments. The range of annual salary increments is from \$50 to about \$300 with a median of about \$100. The typical single salary schedule provides for about thirteen increments. Many writers hold that the maximum salary should be from two and one-half to three times a reasonable minimum salary (base salary), in order to retain capable teachers and encourage further their education. The psychological effect of automatic increases in salaries is obvious, especially if there is a low base salary or the increment is generous. Liberal increments serve to give a professional tone to teaching. They provide for increasing personal and family needs, and encourage attaining more social and economic advantages.

The problems associated with administering increments may pertain to (1) number, (2) amount, (3) eventual effect on the total budget, (4) variation in competency of individual teachers, and (5) added increments for superior teaching and service. Increments beyond those provided in the automatic schedule may be given for several reasons, (1) increased preparation (which should be defined carefully), (2) increased efficiency, (3) special contributions, (4) position transfers involving added responsibilities, (5) correction of any injustice, (6) advisability of retaining teachers of demonstrated ability, (7) cost of living, and for other reasons which may obtain in individual situations. Increments given on the basis of deferred compensation can scarcely be defended as justifiable.

Maximum Salary

The upper level of the salary schedule may depend on both the ability and the willingness of a community to support education

⁹ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *State Minimum Standards for Teachers, 1944*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1944.

through the attraction and retention of capable teachers, especially those with family obligations or peculiar abilities and characteristics. As indicated above, this maximum may be determined by a relative standard of professional living as compared with other occupations. It may be established by the sheer necessity of retaining good teachers in the community or the profession itself. Needless to say, it should be equivalent to salaries paid in other comparable professional groups.

Men and Women

The single salary schedule has undoubtedly been the chief factor in disregarding sex as a differential in constructing teachers' salaries. Consideration as to the relative economic load of men and women has been giving way to concern for individual competency and aptitude in accordance with the position and duties to be performed. Where it has been necessary to retain men because of a heavier personal economic burden, other means have been used to supplement their income such as additional increments or extra pay for extra assignments. It should be pointed out, however, that the predominance of women in the teaching profession has undoubtedly served to depress the salary level, as women traditionally have been paid less for equivalent responsibility. As women teachers increase in preparation and efficiency, the salary levels will rise proportionally. Theoretically, the number of men and women teachers should be approximately equal, especially on the secondary level, so that boys and girls will have the advantage of both.

Dependents

A generation ago the typical teacher was an unmarried woman. More and more women teachers are now married. Most men teachers and administrators are married with dependents. A large number of married as well as single women have others depending upon them for support. Teachers may be divided into the following groups as to dependency load: (1) single women with and without dependents; (2) married men with dependents; (3) married women with and without dependents; and (4) single men with and without dependents. The National Education Association has defined a "dependency unit" as the equivalent of one person wholly dependent, or two persons partially dependent, on the teacher's in-

come, the teacher himself being counted as one whole unit, and partial dependents as one-half units. In general, it may be observed that (1) the dependency rate is higher for men than women, (2) the higher-paid teachers have considerably more income per unit of dependency than lower-paid teachers, and (3) there is a greater tendency to recognize the dependency factor for men than for women. There is a marked tendency in teacher salary schedules to recognize and make provision for the dependency factor in some form. This practice may be open for serious question, especially since it bears little relation to efficiency.¹⁰

Cost-of-Living Adjustment

A fundamental principle in the payment of teachers is that they should receive compensation that will enable them to live on a standard sufficient to maintain and improve their professional efficiency. The cost of maintaining such a standard may vary in different communities, and may become a problem for local determination. The adjustment of salaries upward has been characteristic of the past fifteen years, due largely to the influence of state legislation and the efforts of teachers themselves. These efforts have produced (1) higher minimum salaries, (2) increased number and amounts of increments, (3) extra increments, and (4) bonus. In this connection it is interesting to observe the emergence of labor-management contracts in which wages are raised or lowered automatically in accordance with an agreed cost-of-living index. To apply this principal to teachers' salaries would indeed be an interesting experiment.

Extra Pay for Extra Duties

Wide acceptance has recently been given to the practice of paying teachers extra amounts for additional duties. Three reasons are offered for this practice: (1) it is a convenient method of providing for the administration of duties assigned beyond the classroom, largely "extracurricular" in nature; (2) it provides additional income for those teachers willing to accept these "extra" responsibili-

¹⁰ Theresa P. Pyle, *The Teacher's Dependency Load*, New York Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education no. 782, 1939; National Education Association, Research Division, "The Teacher's Economic Position," *Research Bulletin*, September, 1935.

ties, serving thereby to retain them in the system; and (3) it provides better controls over these responsibilities. For example, a coach may receive extra pay as long as he is "successful," and may be replaced as a coach without prejudice to his regular teaching assignment upon the expiration of his extra duty assignment.

Four groups of assignments are usually recognized for extra pay: (1) coaching athletics, including administrative assignments; (2) directing music activities; (3) coaching dramatics; and (4) sponsoring school publications. Two methods of payment are usually made: (1) outright payments for each activity without regard to its relative worth; and (2) a schedule of unit values previously determined, at a basic rate per unit. For example, with a single unit of service valued at \$100, sponsoring the school paper may be assigned two units (\$200) and coaching football 10 units (\$1000), these amounts being in addition to the regular salary.

THE MERIT PRINCIPLE

How to relate the factor of merit to the teacher's salary schedule acceptably has been one of the unsolved problems of teacher personnel. Competency is manifested by elements of goodness which should ordinarily be recognized by some form of financial reward. The problem has been to determine a measure of adequacy acceptable to both teachers and administration which will be scientific in nature, objective in its administration, and definite in its outcomes.

Arguments in Favor

Supporters of the principle of the recognition of merit in teachers' salaries point out (1) it results in greater public support when the public realizes that better teachers are retained and better teaching results by insisting on efficiency; (2) it is probably the best means available to stimulate teachers to improve of their own volition; (3) it is in harmony with the principle of free enterprise with corresponding rewards; (4) it puts financial rewards within the reach of all teachers; and (5) better teacher-pupil relationships are thereby secured which in turn bring about better teacher-parent relationships.

Objections

Difficulties arise, however, in attempts to apply an acceptable criterion of judgment as to what constitutes merit. Appraisal of

both teaching and the teacher becomes such a complicated procedure as to make the task quite difficult. Opponents of the application of the merit principle in teaching point out that: (1) "superior" teachers are thus set apart from their fellows, creating jealousy and strife; (2) conditioning factors prevent many teachers from achieving a predetermined standard even though they would like to do so; (3) it is impossible to construct an instrument which will include all essentials of good teaching; (4) it is impossible to prevent bias and prejudice in the administration of even the most acceptable instrument; (5) merit rating advances *some* teachers in the schedule, making for increased cost and heavier financial burdens; and (6) the merit principle does not necessarily attract and hold better teachers, nor does it anticipate better teaching.

Administrators generally oppose the application of the merit principle because of (1) the responsibility it requires of them, (2) the large amount of time that it takes, and (3) opposition of teachers generally.

Conclusions

The following are offered as conclusions in regard to the inclusion of the merit principle as an integral element in teachers' salary schedules:

1. Since evaluation in some form plays such an important part in social living, there would appear to be every good reason that valid measures of determining competency in teachers should be employed as a personnel function.

2. Teachers differ in native and teaching abilities. There are marked differences in regard to their contribution to the success of the school. Since free enterprise prevails in our way of living, teachers who excel should not be denied the economic rewards attained by their own efforts. The application of the principle of reward for merit in a salary schedule should begin at a point on the schedule which is necessary for all teachers to maintain a decent standard of living. It should then extend beyond that point upon objective evidence of superior competency.

3. A state or a teachers' association should develop acceptable competency standards. These standards should serve as guides to better teaching. Any application to a salary schedule should be local in administration and procedures cooperatively determined.

4. It may be a part of wisdom to delay temporarily the application of the merit principle as applies to teachers' salaries until (a) there can be common agreement as to the essentials of competency for good teachers and good teaching, and (b) an instrument can be devised which is scientifically determined, sufficiently conclusive, initially acceptable, and can be cooperatively administered. This is not meant to imply that this task is impossible of achievement; rather that if the principle in general is sound, the profession should make every effort to achieve it. Thus the burden of responsibility is on the profession. This means that there should be constant experimentation in order to achieve a solution.

Spalding¹¹ has given an excellent analysis of the merit principle in teachers' salaries. He points out clearly that the great problem of American education is to design a public-school system which will meet adequately both the needs of growing children and the needs for democratic living. He points out that there is a design for good education which takes into consideration many areas of pupil experience. Evaluation must comprehend the total design and until that is achieved, it is useless to place emphasis on any of its segments. Eventually we will be able to see clearly to determine this total design, and then develop a measure which will appraise it. It seems to be a sound and logical conclusion.

TWELVE MONTHS' SERVICE

Since the typical school in the United States is operating on a nine months' school term of 180 school days, it follows that the typical teacher contract calls for nine months of employment, usually September through May. Many school systems have ten full months' employment for teachers. The administration staff and most non-instructional employees are employed for longer periods. The salary which the teacher receives is for the period employed. For three months of the year or less, he may be without employment, or find it necessary to engage in other occupational activities if he wishes

¹¹ Willard B. Spalding, "Recognizing Merit in Teachers' Salaries," *American School Board Journal*, July, 1949, pp. 21-23. Also see William L. Gragg, "Experiences with Merit Salary Promotion," *American School Board Journal*, July, 1949, pp. 23-25. Consult also Marcus T. Spalding, "Teacher-Rating and Salaries," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, December, 1947, p. 197. Spalding points out numerous activities of exceptional service which are indicators of superior teachers and should be considered in merit measurement.

to supplement his income. Thus the teacher must budget his income during the year so as to provide for the summer months.

Twelve Months' Plan of Paying Salaries

Some school districts have assisted teachers in budgeting through a salary distribution over a twelve-month period.

Arguments advanced on behalf of payment of term salaries on the twelve month basis are (1) it enables teachers to budget their expenditures better; (2) it tends to eliminate borrowing during summer months; (3) it contributes to the teacher's economic security; and (4) it makes for transition eventually to full twelve months employment. Objections offered are (1) additional clerical service and accounting are necessary; and (2) many teachers object to holding back part of their salaries for service already rendered.¹²

It is obvious that teaching is by no means a profession requiring full-time employment, a fact which has deterred many promising young men and women from entering it. Moreover, payment on a nine months' basis of service, attractive as the salary may be, should in no wise be considered as the equivalent of payment for the full year. The fact remains that the teacher works nine months of the term and is paid for services rendered during that period.

Employment on a Twelve Months' Basis

Many school systems have been giving this matter serious attention. The problem is threefold: (1) to provide teachers with full-time employment so that they can enjoy a reasonably high standard of living, (2) to provide extended educational services during the summer months, thus increasing educational opportunities, and (3) to enable the teacher to improve in service under direction. By employing teachers during the summer their services are retained for the system and their income increased. They are not forced to accept occupations to eke out salaries below a professional standard. In addition the community receives the benefits of added educational services.

Many school systems are now experimenting with the employment of all teachers on a twelve months' contract. This requires a

¹² National Education Association, "The Twelve Month Plan of Paying Teachers' Salaries," *Educational Research Circular* no. 10, Washington, D.C., The Association, November, 1939.

complete reorganization of the educational program with additional educational services. It requires better educational leadership and cooperation within the staff. Salary increases based on two or three months' additional service may be as much as 25 per cent. It will require community approval and financial support. Any plan based on twelve months' employment can be justified only if the supplementary employment results in increased efficiency on the part of the teachers and extended educational services both to the boys and girls and the community in general. The plan may not necessarily appeal to all teachers, because of preference for other methods of gainful employment, or for long vacations, study, and travel. If desired a plan can be organized making provision for those teachers who are interested and can fit best into the expanded program.

Extended Services Program

The extended services which may be included within a twelve-month educational program are (1) recreational activities such as supervised playgrounds, athletic programs, and camping; (2) educational services for boys and girls, such as summer schools for additional credits or make-up work, and hobbies; (3) classes for adults; (4) library services; (5) education planning such as developing courses in preparing teaching, study, materials, bibliographies; (6) group professional improvement such as workshops, study of the community, contacts with community agencies, industries and organizations, guidance activities, employment studies; (7) individual professional improvement such as summer-school attendance, approved travel, and individual experiments; (8) other services which may have some educational value, such as research activities, taking school census, educational reorganization, and bus transportation problems; (9) school maintenance work, which may be acceptable for those who desire it.

Naturally the selection of activities to be included in the extended educational program will depend largely on the local situation. Experience with this program may eventually lead to the integration of these activities within the school term itself. The plan may provide for the ultimate extension of the school term to a full twelve months. In fact there appears to be no good reason why this should not be accomplished eventually. Rotation of activities may be advisable for those who desire it, such as travel or summer-school at-

tendence every three years. Some summer vacation should be allowed for all, such as two or three weeks. It must not be forgotten that most school schedules provide liberally for vacation periods at Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Easter. If a longer period is desired, it should then be at the teacher's expense.

Outcomes

The twelve months' plan¹³ requires extensive leadership and direction. The administration of this program may be assigned to an assistant superintendent, a principal, or other staff member. Teachers are available on call for staff meetings in planning, and at the opening of the school year. With full-time employment they can learn to work together more closely giving them an added measure of security. The school plant can be used more extensively. Children can be more closely supervised and excellent recreational activities provided.

SUPPLEMENTAL INCOME

The Problem

It is well known that many teachers supplement their salaries through employment beyond the school day and week, during vacations, and the summer months. While the nature of these types of employment is a matter of common knowledge, little is known as to the aggregate of their earnings. Much criticism has been leveled against teachers so employed because it is the common belief that teaching is a full-time occupation and hence such additional employment naturally affects both the teacher's health and efficiency.

Types

Several types of supplementary employment may be discovered among teachers: (1) employment within the school system as in evening classes and summer schools; (2) professional employment outside of the school system and growing out of a teacher's regular

¹³ The Rochester-Minnesota Plan provides the principal features of the twelve months' plan. See Maurice J. Thomas, "Year-Round Services and Higher Salaries," *The School Executive*, April, 1947, pp. 62-64. Maurice J. Thomas, "Returns on a Year-Round Investment," *Educational Leadership*, April, 1948, pp. 459-464. See also R. H. La Cosse, "Pioneering is Not Dead," *Progressive Education*, April, 1947, pp. 210-211. This is a description of the twelve months' plan in Glencoe, Illinois.

assignments or speciality, such as tutoring, accounting, extra teaching at colleges and universities, summer camps, lecturing, writing, and consultative work; and (3) nonprofessional employment, such as clerking, working in steel mills, garages, service stations, farms, and other industries, repair work, operating a private business such as income-tax returns, conducting travel tours, agents on commission, and homemaking.

Extent and Effects

The prevailing tendency of teachers, especially those of the male sex, to supplement their salaries as teachers is likely to have a serious effect on the teaching profession. That men teachers do supplement their salaries is well known; yet little is known concerning the exact nature and amount of this practice or effects on teachers and teaching. Several studies¹⁴ have been reported concerning this widespread practice, with estimates of about one-third of their total income received from sources other than their own salaries. In some instances this income was made up through the income of a working wife; in most cases it consisted of supplemental income of the teacher working in various capacities.

Denbow's study¹⁵ of the supplemental incomes of 735 male teachers is particularly revealing. Of these 86 per cent were married with a dependency load of 3.2 persons. The median age was about thirty-nine years. Most of them had attained the master's degree or beyond. The median supplemental income was nearly twelve hundred dollars, obtained through approximately ten additional hours (median) of work weekly. This amount did not include summer vacation during which nearly all male teachers found it necessary to obtain additional income, for at least part of the summer, unless they were engaged in furthering their education. The nature of such supplemental employment varied widely from professional and managerial work through semiskilled trades to unskilled manual labor of various types.

Teachers by and large declare that it is essential that their present salaries be supplemented in some manner, if they are to support their families, send their children to college, and maintain any reasonable

¹⁴ For a review of these studies, consult John Edward Denbow, *A Study of Supplemental Incomes of Male Teachers in the Public Schools of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1953, pp. 8-13.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

degree of professional, social, and economic respectability. This raises a serious question as to the minimum amount a teacher should earn in order to live as a professional person, comparable to other professionals. If we should accept six thousand dollars as an annual salary for teachers sufficient to maintain this professional standard of living, it is obvious that there is a great gap between such an amount and the median salary now paid to all teachers in the United States.

Teachers generally are willing to give up such additional economic return if they are enabled to maintain their economic security through an acceptable living standard. This is a problem both for the profession as well as society as a whole. The degree of stabilization of the teaching profession will depend largely upon the manner in which teachers, especially male teachers, are retained in the teaching profession through adequate economic security and resulting professional respect.

There is little question that such part-time employment has an effect both upon the teacher's health as well as on his teaching responsibilities. Both are likely to suffer. Moreover, such work, according to teachers, affects the routine and enjoyment of their home life, especially if the times of employment seriously interfere. Many teachers claim that only by supplementing their income can they live as normal human beings, namely, own a home, raise a family, improve their education, travel, and enjoy a few of the luxuries of life to which they feel they are entitled. It is without doubt a serious professional problem.

Outcomes

The practice of supplementing the teacher's income seems to be increasing rapidly. Perhaps our standard of living has made the practice necessary, in order that a teacher may attain advantages otherwise not attainable. One is led to question seriously this tendency for the effect it may have ultimately on the teaching profession itself.

ECONOMIC SECURITY

The Teacher's Prospects

What prospects do teachers have beyond their annual incomes to attain some measure of economic security? Two answers may be

given: (1) through savings, and (2) through retirement. Little data are available on the savings of teachers. Teachers living at home may have an added advantage because of lowered cost of living. Teachers with dependents may find it difficult to maintain any reasonable standard of living, nor can they save. It is well known that teachers are forced to borrow money frequently. Many leave the profession because of inability to save for a home, to educate their children, or look forward to eventual security. While many teachers eventually own their own homes, it is probably the exceptional teacher who is able to amass additional property and other assets as an outcome of years of teaching. Perhaps, as is generally claimed, teachers are poor financiers at best. The retirement plans are indeed a forced blessing for most teachers and their families, even though the amount of retirement is much too inadequate. Since teacher retirement will be discussed at greater length in another section, it will not be treated further at this point. Social Security is now available to teachers.

Credit Unions

The stringent regulations of banking institutions as to credit facilities have materially affected those groups who would use them, and who are without some form of security. Teachers constitute one of these groups. The teacher often finds himself faced with a financial need such as an emergency, illness, surgical operation, care of dependents, further education, purchasing a home or an automobile, carrying over the summer months, and many other economic situations which bring up the need for ready money beyond his salary or other income. Unable to meet the bank's security requirements, the teacher must turn to other means.

Credit unions have been established widely in the United States since first established in New Hampshire in 1908. Nearly all states now have laws regulating them. It is estimated that there are about 12,000 credit unions in the United States with more than 600 serving school and college employees. These are chartered and controlled by members within the same school system, and provide credit for both as well as savings. Members qualify through payments of entrance fees and purchase of stock, after which they may borrow under the conditions of the credit union. The savings plan is an added feature paying dividends at intervals.

The credit union has been widely accepted as a means of assisting teachers to manage their own economic affairs. It is democratically controlled. It offers an excellent method to encourage self-improvement and cultural and social advancement, and enables a teacher to enjoy a reasonable share of the comforts of life. In many instances credit unions have been the means of retaining promising teachers within the profession.¹⁶

PUBLIC ATTITUDE TOWARD TEACHERS' ECONOMIC STATUS

Perhaps it has been unfortunate for teachers that such great significance is attached to the financial standing of the individual citizen. Respect has been generally accorded in direct relation to the monetary rewards of the occupation. Since social position is directly related to the level of one's outcome, teaching has always labored at a serious disadvantage. Traditionally, low salaries for teachers did not contribute to improving the low esteem in which they were held in many communities, nor was universal education considered of great importance. The high turnover of teachers, low professional attainments, and many other impediments had to be overcome before the teachers' economic position could be improved and public esteem accorded him.

The marked improved public attitude toward teachers and teaching has been due to many factors. These may be summarized as follows: (1) better wages and salaries for all workers which are reflected in teaching, (2) improved teacher preparation standards, (3) minimum salary laws, (4) salary schedules for teachers, especially the single salary schedule, (5) teacher tenure, (6) teacher retirement, (7) increased attractiveness of teaching, (8) activities of local, state, and national professional organizations, (9) improved professional status of teachers, and (10) active support of lay individuals and citizens' groups for better education.

While the economic position of teachers has improved to a point where it offers many superior advantages, it does not yet rank

¹⁶ The National Education Association has prepared considerable information on credit for teachers. Consult *The Teachers Credit Union*, Personal Growth Leaflet no. 138, rev., 1945; Committee on Credit Unions, *Credit Unions, The Cooperative Finance Movement*, 1943; *Ibid.*, "Status of Teacher Credit Unions," 1939; and Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, *Credit Unions for Teachers*, Discussion pamphlet no. 6, 1945. Selected references may be found on p. 23 of the latter pamphlet.

economically with such professions as law and medicine. Much will depend on further public support. Still further efforts are needed to interest the public in education and teaching, since to improve public attitudes toward education in general is to improve the economic status of the teacher.

FUNDAMENTALS OF ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE FOR TEACHERS

In summarizing the fundamentals necessary to maintain a reasonable level of economic independence for teachers, certain principles have been proposed. The problem is to enable teachers to support themselves and their dependents at an appropriate standard of living without the necessity of supplementing their income through other means, or accepting charity in any form. The means used must contribute to a teacher's individual self-respect, morale, and teaching efficiency.

1. *Adequate salaries.* These should be based on a desirable standard of living sufficient to maintain such a standard for himself and his dependents and improve his professional and cultural level.
2. *Continuous employment.* To maintain the previous standard, continuous employment is necessary through the years of his productive efficiency and on a twelve months' basis. Since teaching should be a full-time occupation, the income should be sufficient during the year to offset the need for income gained through supplementary employment.
3. *Wise budgetary procedure.* Maintenance of a sound economic position requires careful budgeting of available income to maintain the desired standard, and provide for the future.
4. *Savings and investments.* To save a portion of one's income systematically and invest it soundly is an essential aspect of this program. Ordinarily, one's financial obligations increase with the years. It will help immeasurably if the income of his savings, properly invested, assume an increasing portion of his economic load.
5. *Protection against personal losses and hazards.* There are many hazards which affect one's economic stability, such as (1) illness and accident, (2) disability for any reason, (3) superannuation, and (4) early death. There may be financial losses due to fire, accidents, death in family, dependents, or loss of position. These should be provided against through health examinations, insurance, savings, and other means.

6. *Protection against property losses.* To own a home is a natural expectation as well as a right for all teachers—single or married, especially where children or other dependents are involved. To own a home requires a certain permanency within a community. Property thus held requires normal protection for fires, theft, storms, accidents, and other hazards. Care should be taken to secure the proper legal safeguards, as in deeds, mortgages, agreements, and insurance policies.
7. *Credit.* To borrow money may be necessary for emergency purposes. Banking institutions are the logical means for this purpose. Credit unions offer advantages. The use of credit wherever possible should be for investment purposes rather than for expenditures, that is, to stabilize and improve one's economic position. Otherwise, it becomes a burden which increases with the years.¹⁷

PRINCIPLES OF SALARY SCHEDULE MAKING

The fundamentals of teachers' salaries and salary schedules have been discussed throughout this chapter. In summary the following might be used as a basis for the construction of a salary schedule:

1. The salary schedule should be based on state minimum, maximum, and increment salary requirements, with provision for such differentials as to certification, position, or other conditions as provided.
2. Local conditions may determine the nature of, and the extent to which, the framework of a state's salary schedule will be modified. Such economic factors as wealth of community, income, ability to pay, and cost of living should be related. Since all children are entitled to reasonable and adequate educational opportunities which include good teachers, it may become necessary to supplement the local effort through additional state subsidies.
3. The relation of expenses for instruction which includes salary schedule expenditures to other current expense budgetary items should be maintained at approximately seventy per cent. Teachers should not be penalized in salary because of other expenditures, even if emergency in character.
4. The salary schedule should encourage a career in teaching, taking into consideration such factors as attractive initial salary, ultimate salary, provide for a home and family, savings, and maintenance of professional self-respect.

¹⁷ Compare similar suggestions in National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, *The Economic Welfare of Teachers*, Sixth Yearbook, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1931.

5. The salary schedule should provide an incentive to secure adequate initial preparation and professional growth.
6. The salary schedule should be sufficient to provide for full-time employment both during the school year as well as on a twelve months' basis.
7. The salary schedule should provide incentives to further progress including additional training, rewards for merit, and opportunities for promotion. Other incentives include summer study, leaves of absence for study or travel, and research.
8. The single salary schedule is recognized generally as desirable and should be maintained. In its administration, provision should be made for flexibility in individual cases, such as heavier assignments, special services, and dual responsibilities, perhaps retention of superior teachers under certain conditions. While the retention of a superior teacher is generally desirable, to do so should not become a cause for faculty dissatisfaction and disunity.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE SALARY SCHEDULE

The salary schedule should be so constructed that it provides for easy and acceptable administration. Even with the most satisfying schedule arrangements, conditions may arise which bring about dissatisfaction and difficulty. To offset these the following suggestions are offered: (1) the initial introduction of a schedule should not decrease any teacher's salary; (2) a teacher should be placed on the schedule to which she is normally entitled without regard to pressure or favoritism; (3) cost-of-living and dependency factors should be recognized and administered fairly; (4) beginning teachers should not be provided for in the schedule better than those teachers with long records of successful experience; (5) a distinction should be made between different types of service if greater efficiency is thereby attained; (6) both community and teacher support should be aroused in order to maintain a schedule of quality. This may be accompanied by an increased public interest in the work of the schools and teaching itself. Teachers on their part should know the community and its problems and strive constantly to improve professionally.¹⁸

¹⁸ Simpson has made an interesting analysis of the various factors associated in the teacher salary problem. He concludes that, in spite of all evidence derived through research and otherwise, the teacher salary problem is closely geared to the economy of the times, and what a teacher receives will depend largely on "what people as educational citizens express in their many and varied salary policies found in local

Perhaps no aspect of school administration causes more problems for the typical school executive than the administration of the salary schedule. The demands of teachers or other groups determined through professional or other organizations and pressure through their representatives, may, if unreasonable, bring about disorganization, with unfortunate effects on staff, pupils and community alike. Since the development of the schedule should be determined co-operatively, its administration is essentially an executive function and should be so accepted. All exceptions to it should be approved by the board of education.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find examples of salaries of and other income received by teachers in past generations and evaluate your findings in the light of contemporary economic conditions.
2. What relationship, if any, exists between the regard in which teachers are held in any generation and their remuneration?
3. Give evidences of the changed economic position of teachers' *salary*. How do you account for any changes?
4. Study and compare the salary status of teachers over a twenty-year period in (a) a selected district, (b) the nation.
5. To what extent should teachers' salaries be comparable to the most favored profession economically?
6. To what extent have teachers as a profession felt the effects of the rising cost of living? Be specific in your answer.
7. Make a chart listing the arguments for and against the inclusion of the merit principle in salary schedules.
8. Can you list defensible objections to the single salary schedule?
9. Take a position on the "extra pay for extra duty" policy. List your arguments. Study one or more districts where it is practiced. Evaluate. What do you find?
10. What are the arguments for and against the twelve months' employment of teachers? What plan would you advocate?
11. Take a position on part-time positions of teachers in order to supplement their income. Compare several teachers who are so employed as to their efficiency. Recommend a policy.
12. To what extent can teachers generally maintain a reasonable basis for economic security? How can the situation be improved?

and in state school systems." (Alfred D. Simpson, "The Nature of the Teacher Salary Problem," *Harvard Educational Review*, Spring, 1952, pp. 73-82.)

13. How can public attitudes toward the economic status of teachers be improved? Be specific.
14. Analyze the section on fundamentals of economic independence for teachers. Appraise your findings.
15. Evaluate the fundamentals of the salary schedule as suggested. What elements are most defensible? What should the base salary be determined?
16. Apply the principles of salary scheduling to a selected school district. Are these principles sound and workable? What would you suggest further?

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The Teacher's Social Status and Community Relationships

IF THE American way of life is to continue without interruption, its fundamental principles must be transmitted and improved with each generation and for each individual. This is one of the principal tasks of the public schools. The school requires teachers to understand society and the place of the public school in it. Being a citizen and as a member of the community, the teacher is concerned that the social purposes of the school be realized. To this end he must be not only accepted by the community but highly respected by its citizens.

Throughout the centuries, impressions of teachers have varied widely. As their social status has improved, their influence has increased. This chapter discusses the teacher's social status and his community relationships. It presents (1) traditional counterparts of the teacher, (2) the teacher as a citizen, (3) the teacher's personal and social life, (4) the teacher in his position, (5) religious life and beliefs, (6) social attitudes and restrictions, (7) his changing social status, and (8) the teacher's integrated personality.

TRADITIONAL COUNTERPARTS

Early Impressions

Impressions of schoolmasters as portrayed by writers in the past vary widely. On the one hand the teacher was represented as a low coarse fellow and an adventurer. Often he was an indentured servant. Some teachers came from the ranks of lowly workers, tradesmen,

or returning soldiers who, seeking positions, were given preference as teachers because such an opportunity to teach was available. On the other hand, many schoolmasters assumed a place of honor and respect in the community close to that held by the minister, who was perhaps the most respected person in the social order. The teacher's seat in public meeting often determined his rank to which he was assigned as befitting his station and the respect with which he was held.

The fact is, both of these impressions represented the real truth. He was both a vulgar fellow and a highly respected citizen depending on the community, the school he served, and his own estimate of his professional responsibility and the services he performed. Evidence of his social status can be summarized from his title, his education, his personality, his income, and his wealth. Generally, he was neither well educated nor wealthy. More often he occupied a lowly position in the general population. If he was also a clergyman his social status was materially raised. His social status increased as he rose in levels of teaching. As a teacher in the academy his status was above that of the common schools, with advantages far superior if he taught in college or university.

Since there is a close relationship between a teacher's economic and social status, his impecunious salary was some indication of professional respect. He was dependent on the liberality of the members of the board of education, whose attitudes towards education and the teachers of the communities they served varied widely.

The Effects of Tradition

Since teaching was a part-time occupation and tenure unheard of, the effects on the social status of teachers were obvious. Because of low wages, women gradually displaced men in the profession, especially in the elementary schools. Since the young lady was more likely to live at home and teach a nearby school, wages could be kept low with favoritism widely practiced. Likely young men, if they entered teaching at all, prepared meanwhile for other professions where the economic and social returns were more promising.

Tradition has thus played an important part in determining the social status of teachers. The public tends to hold college and university teachers in greater respect, more so than secondary teachers, and both generally in greater respect than elementary teachers. It

has been difficult to overcome traditional patterns of thinking in regard to teachers. Fortunately, there has been a marked rise in the social status of teachers in most communities within recent years, to such an extent that teachers are now assuming a more prominent position of respect and influence.

THE TEACHER AS A CITIZEN

Normal Living

Teachers have a normal expectation of living as any citizen lives in the community. While he is expected to lead a reasonably exemplary life, he should enjoy the prerogatives of any citizen. He should become a resident, be enabled to marry, have a home, and raise a family as he sees fit. He should not be subject to persecutions or lead a life radically different from that of other people. His respect in the community will increase as he becomes a useful citizen and renders reasonable community service.

Aspects of Good Citizenship

Teachers who have a pleasing personality, a sense of equality and justice, who practice self-control, consideration, and tact, and who pay careful attention to their personal grooming and habits, will be regarded as good citizens. Single incidents of a disregard for these matters may do much to influence negatively the effectiveness of teachers as citizens.

Part-Time Employment

Employment outside their classroom duties for varying additional hours of the day or week is becoming more and more characteristic of teachers. It is the claim of many teachers that only in this way are they enabled to supplement their salaries to the point where they can maintain themselves and their families with any degree of *respectability* and comfort. This problem has been discussed at length in Chapter 16. In many ways it is an unfortunate tendency.

THE TEACHER'S PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE

The teacher's social characteristics have been discussed at some length in chapter 2. It is generally known that teachers come predominately from families of modest circumstances. Because they

come from substantial but limited backgrounds, they may be often lacking in cultural and social advantages. Fortunately, such young people are more eager to improve upon their limitations and become better teachers because of a better appreciation of the opportunities afforded them. Many young people desirous of a college education may select teaching as a life career due to the comparative lower cost and added advantages peculiar to teaching. It should be pointed out that since teaching offers a career of service, it does attract that segment of the student population who love children and desire in that way to serve humanity.

The Teacher and His Family

The typical man teacher is married with a family to support. More women teachers are unmarried than married (about 3 to 1), although the ratio of married women teachers is steadily increasing. Whether married or single, most teachers have a dependency responsibility other than their immediate families, such as a mother, brother, or sister. Removal of restrictions against the employment of married women generally has improved materially the morale of women teachers and has attracted many excellent teachers to the profession. As the tenure status of the teacher improves, ownership of homes increases. Perhaps a third or more of single women teachers maintain their own living establishments, and many others on a shared basis. Nearly all the married teachers maintain homes, perhaps a half or more own them in whole or in part. As the median age of teachers increases, the dependency load tends to increase until about the fiftieth year, when it levels off. Most married men teachers provide for home maintenance through their own efforts. The salary level and economic load is a determining factor in the type of home and family status.

The Teacher's Social Life

In some communities what the teacher does and says outside of school is usually of more public concern than what he says and does within the school. Especially in smaller communities there is an expectation that he will conform to the community's social pattern.¹

¹ William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, Dryden Press, 1951, pp. 149-151; see also Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, chap. 13.

In larger communities his personal life is usually of less public concern, unless unfortunate publicity is attached to a single episode.

The conduct of the teachers becomes a community problem in those localities where he is personally known. His religious life and attitudes are of general interest to many persons. Communities still differ as to the propriety of card playing and dancing. Some teachers are forbidden to smoke in public. Drinking is, in most instances, forbidden; in fact, many state laws make intemperance a cause for teacher dismissal. A teacher's relations with the opposite sex occasion much comment, especially if his partner be another teacher, a pupil of the school, or a person of questionable habits. Sexual delinquency, or what is commonly believed to be such, gives rise to gossip which usually leads to prompt dismissal. Some hold that even the suspicion of immorality renders a teacher unfit for further service. Marriage, especially of women teachers, is a matter of public concern. Divorce is often fatal to a teacher's usefulness. Pregnancy and childbirth have created issues quite adverse to the teacher. School boards and superintendents often specify where a teacher shall room or board. A teacher may become a target for gossip on slight pretexts whether or not his conduct merits it. How the woman teacher dresses, how she combs her hair, the length of her skirts, the style of her hat, her use of cosmetics, the sheerness of her stockings, are all matters of public concern. Where she spends her week ends concerns some people. Men are probably less liable to community gossip in this respect than women; however, any social unconventionality is taboo.

Diverging social and economic forces are at work in regard to the community's interest in and criticism of the teacher's personal life. A sense of responsibility on the part of the teacher in the interest of each child ought to be a basis for guidance. On the community's part, the "dictator" or gossip ought to be ready to accept as his own the standard of conduct which he so willingly places on others. Prejudice should be overcome with intelligence and forbearance.

THE TEACHER IN HIS POSITION

There is a distinction between a teacher as a person and a teacher in his position. Many occasions arise in which the teacher's position is the focal point of social attention and interest.

Variations in Social Demand

Social demand for good teaching is an important determinant of the level of the quality of the teacher in a community. The people of one community may desire only the best teachers for their children, while in another there is satisfaction with such teachers as can be secured at minimum salaries. In one community, the teachers of the elementary school program receive the greater attention with a corresponding demand for good teachers and good teaching; in another a good secondary school program is demanded because of college requirements or other factors. Selection procedures may be an important factor, especially where individual board members retain the prerogative of naming the teacher for a particular school grade. Local teachers may receive preference without regard to personality or other qualities. The selection of teachers may be influenced by religious or political affiliation, physical attractiveness, or "knowing the right people." While some of these indications pertain to the individual person, they do reflect a community's attitude to a considerable degree.

Community Contacts

The teacher makes many contacts with the community in his daily work. There are first those contacts which bring him in direct relationships with the home, such as through disciplinary problems, pupils' reports, pupils' activities, and pupils' health. Since every educational program should be community centered, the teacher has many relationships in its development and revision. Curriculum planning should include a study of (1) community setting, both physical and human, (2) community processes and problems, and (3) community agencies and activities. Through field trips, service projects, and work experiences, much can be learned and adapted to better school living. Through the pupil activities program, many contacts are made with the community, both satisfying and harmful. Athletics for instance, give many communities a perverted point of view of the educational program. Better indications of a good school program may be found in its musical and forensic activities, clubs, assembly programs, and through individual pupil contributions to community welfare.

RELIGIOUS LIFE AND BELIEFS

The religious life and beliefs of the teacher are of paramount concern to many people especially in smaller communities. Religious intolerance, one of society's strongest forces, makes itself felt in the selection of teachers and in other manifestations of control over the teaching force. Many Protestant teachers according to Beale² assert that in some cities, Catholic, Jewish, and agnostic influence is so great that no freedom remains to the teacher to instill even the most general ethical and moral principles. A teacher of one faith may be dismissed to make room for one of another faith. State laws, both mandatory and prohibitive, affect the teacher's religious influence. For example, in one state daily Bible reading is required; in another it is prohibited.

The problems of religion usually center around what the teacher himself believes and does as an individual, and what he says or does in the line of teaching duty. The public schools, being public and open to all children, should be definitely nonsectarian; hence any religious test imposed on a teacher is incompatible. Since character forming is a major educational objective, teachers of high morals and ideals should be selected and retained without regard to any particular religious affiliation. On their part, teachers should not abuse the privilege of teaching in order to proselyte. In the classroom the facts of each daily lesson should be presented as truth without regard to creeds, pressures, or religious or racial groups. Children are entitled to know the truth, and teachers should be fearless enough to present it. In so doing, they should be amply supported by the board of education, their administrative officers, and the community in general.

SOCIAL ATTITUDES AND RESTRICTIONS

The Teacher and Community Living

Considerable emphasis has been laid on the expectation that a teacher becomes a citizen of the community he serves. Perhaps the selection of the hometown girl is as much based on this thought as is her lower economic cost to the district, with participation in such community activities as the church, the clubs, and the social life. The

² Beale, *op. cit.*, p. 208. Chap. 9 is an excellent discussion of this question.

teacher is often called upon to lead the Boy Scouts or the Camp Fire Girls, teach a Sunday-school class, and engage in similar activities.

Local businessmen insist on patronage of home stores and shops, especially in smaller communities. It is important that the teacher give due heed to his financial affairs. A lawsuit is bound to react unfavorably. To pay one's debts, to live within one's means, to live economically are all desirable. Many a teacher has lost his effectiveness and perhaps his position by failure to pay proper attention to his own business affairs.

All of these things point to the necessity for the maintenance of an adequate standard of living for all teachers, based upon a salary commensurate with his position and services rendered. Many communities may have to be educated to the need for such a standard. The teacher should become an integral part of every community, but this does not mean that he is bound by it. If education means bringing about desirable changes and adjustments, then the teacher should become a leader in that direction.

Social Class Affiliations

The opportunities for teaching have attracted over the years many young people from skilled and semiskilled occupational groups, and from small towns and rural areas. Ordinarily, teachers become associated with the great middle class of society, tending to rise from their original social situation. Class differences do exist among teachers, illustrated by secondary-school teachers as compared with elementary teachers, and college and university teachers as compared to either.

Some studies have been made as to social class distinctions and beliefs of teachers. Sims³ found, for instance, that 85 per cent of the group he studied (726 teachers) identified themselves with the upper middle and middle classes. Their previous affiliations, however, influenced their attitudes favorably to working-class groups since they felt that America is a land of opportunity. However, as teachers rise in social class groups, they tend to become more conservative. Social restrictions towards teachers have tended to becloud their attitudes somewhat, and have brought about a certain timid-

³ V. M. Sims, "Social Class Affiliation of a Group of Public School Teachers," *School Review*, September, 1951, pp. 331-338.

ity. Fortunately, two movements are improving the teacher's social position and social attitudes, (1) an improved economic position, and (2) professional idealism and unity. The social position of teachers, however, should never become so advanced as to crystallize their thinking and affect their touch with the common problems of boys and girls of all classes.

Recently postal authorities and the FBI were called upon to investigate a nation-wide letter campaign to persuade girls in teacher-training institutions to give up their planned careers. This investigation, requested by the National Education Association, disclosed that scurrilous remarks against teachers were being circulated in which such terms as "old-maid factories," "lost women," "matrimonial blind alley," were applied to teachers and teaching. The use of such techniques may cause capable teachers irreparable harm. Teaching is an honorable profession and is entitled to the support of every citizen. Where the leadership in developing this support does not arise out of the community, the teaching profession should supply it.

CHANGING SOCIAL STATUS AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Social Status of New Entrants

Fortunately, recent studies show a changing status of young people entering the teaching profession. Selective procedures are indicating a better qualified young person to teach. More students are coming from larger communities than formerly and from homes where the cultural and social advantages are advantageous. Students come from higher occupational levels and from smaller families, although many of them find it necessary to obtain a portion of their own expenses through their own efforts. Students come from homes where telephones, bathrooms, furnaces, and radio and television are a common occurrence. Students have had wide experiences in extracurricular activities, travel, reading, music, and recreation generally. Many have had work experiences. Most of them have a genuine interest in religion.⁴

These findings, especially if compared with previous studies, point out clearly that younger teachers are entering teaching with more

⁴ Compare the findings of George Kaluger, *A Comparative Study of the Social and Economic Backgrounds of Students Entering State Teachers College in Pennsylvania*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1950.

favorable cultural and social advantages than heretofore, a distinct gain to the profession.

Social Understandings

In order to accept his social responsibilities as a member of the teaching profession, the teacher's broad cultural background and adequate social understandings and attitudes become an increasing asset to the profession. The teacher has a particular role in society. How he plays this role depends largely on his character and activities as an ordinary citizen in the community he serves, in addition to his professional responsibilities. Since all cultures have their peculiar characteristics, teachers as transmitters of that culture should be good specimens of it. Teachers should have an awareness of social changes and how to meet them. These changes are manifested in every facet of daily living, a daily challenge to all teachers. In this respect, the role of education and the teacher are perhaps the most significant influences for good in our society. Perhaps it may be summed up by saying that the maintenance of social balance is a major educational function, the task of the teacher in each community.

THE TEACHER'S INTEGRATED PERSONALITY

The chief end of education is the development of rich and many-sided personalities properly adjusted to happy and efficient social living. An individual's personality represents a complex configuration of his physical characteristics, his mental capacities, his social and emotional behavior, his attitudes, and his spiritual outlook. All of these must be considered in terms of his responses to the daily stimulations of his environment. Although he may inherit certain potentialities of personality development, much of what he is to become at any time in his life is the expression of learned patterns of behavior. As he becomes stimulated by these environmental forces, he learns to respond to them in a way that molds him into the individual he now is and is to become.

It is obvious that the development of pupils into properly balanced and integrated personalities depends largely on teachers who similarly have developed properly balanced and integrated personalities. The teacher becomes a *whole person* in action. The nature of his personality and its influence is so complex and so sensitive as to be

easily thrown off balance by impairment of any physical, mental, social, or emotional imperfection. Moreover, casual situations may be so subtle in their approach, or difficult in their identification, as to bring about an unawareness of their manifestations. Often their very nature is embarrassing to the individual teacher who becomes oversensitive to the situation and hence fears the consequences. When the situation becomes pronounced, it may be difficult to restore the personality balance.

The maintenance of a properly balanced and wholesome personality, then, is the desired goal of each teacher.⁵ Since we are by nature human and subject to its frailties, as well as highly individualized, the task becomes an individual one to attain. Either one rises above the difficulties that beset him and attains the ideal, or through ignorance, superstition, envy, frustration, unwholesome attitudes, the sheer weariness of the struggle, and the seeming delight of the easy way out, he becomes submerged and eventually is forgotten. Unfortunately, the rewards for good teaching are so long delayed as to lose the motivation for recognition of the good that one now does. Perhaps he should find satisfying rewards within himself, and knowing his own powers and strengths and seeking no tangible rewards he loses himself in the eternal verities of a great profession.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Review several references such as histories of education in order to locate descriptive accounts of teachers of past generations. Compare points of similarity to modern teachers.
2. Make a study of a selected group of teachers as to their personal and social life.
3. Compare the conduct of teachers in two or more selected communities differing especially as to size. What differences do you note?
4. To what extent should boards of education restrict in any manner the personal and social life of teachers?
5. To what extent are teachers restricted as citizens? Explain.
6. Select several criteria of social status and apply to a selected group of teachers. Compare your findings with as many studies as you can.

⁵ The reader will find an interesting list of eight specific criteria for the development of an integrated, harmonious, and efficient personality in J. E. Wallace Wallin, *Personality Maladjustment and Mental Hygiene*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935, pp. 32-42.

7. Make a study of a group of parents in order to ascertain their attitudes towards teachers and teaching.
8. To what extent do the social understandings of teachers affect their teaching responsibilities? Illustrate.
9. To what extent does a community's religion conflicts cluster about the religious life of teachers?
10. Show how a community, centered educational program provides many opportunities as well as problems for teachers.
11. What evidence can you add to show that the social status of teachers is constantly improving?
12. Critically appraise the teacher as an integrated personality.

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Pensions and Retirement

NO PERSON, irrespective of the size of his present income or the probability of his continuous employment during his productive years, can escape the necessity of providing in some manner for essential loss of earning power or income due to old age or early permanent disability. The specter of advancing years has such reality that we are all faced with the need for some provision for our welfare and security as well as those dependent upon us. The earning power of teachers during their productive years has been none too good at the best. Personal savings, insurance, homes acquired through purchase or otherwise, investments, and other sources of income are generally insufficient. To retire on \$5000 a year would require the income of over one hundred thousand dollars in investments, an amount of fantastic proportions to most teachers who come from modest circumstances.

Fortunately for teachers, provision is now being made for eventual loss of earning power. The principal method is in establishing pension and retirement systems to which both the teacher and the public made a contribution. The first retirement systems were local, organized as a result of both public and professional interest. This interest stimulated larger groups of teachers and eventually state associations to become concerned for their mutual security and welfare. At the present time there are about seventy-two state and local teacher retirement systems. This movement has stimulated other professions to provide similarly, and has led to federal social security and industrial welfare plans.

It is the purpose of this chapter to present a brief history of the teacher retirement movement, a definition of terms, its present

status, principles of a sound retirement system, elements in administration, impacts of the courts, pertinent retirement problems, and the status and problems of the retired teacher. The chapter closes with suggestions for an improved retirement program for teachers.

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE MOVEMENT

Period of No Provision

The movement for some form of organized provision for the old age of teachers began less than a century ago. Prior to 1869 schoolmasters were called upon to "keep school" as long as their strength and acceptance would permit. With few attendance regulations, it was easier to "stretch out" the time taken out for illness or advancing age until the illness waned or the weather improved. Nor was it advisable that early schoolmasters enjoy pension privileges over other citizens, unless such a citizen was a returning soldier. Our thrifty ancestors deemed it obligatory for each family to make their own provisions against the vicissitudes and uncertainties of old age. Even this did not seem so important, since relatives were expected to take care of their own elders, life expectancy being far below that of the present generation.

Still the problem of the superannuated teacher remained. In a few isolated instances, certain towns made provisions for such teachers through pensions, part-time employment, and outright gifts of charity. Then there was always the poorhouse with its yawning doors staring in the face of the impecuniaries and the unfortunate. Since life moved on apace with much work and little leisure, the lot of the aged was not a pleasant one to contemplate.

First Developments

Public attention was first focused on the needs of superannuated teachers when in 1869 the New York City Teachers Mutual Life Assurance Association was formed about the same time that pensions for firemen and policemen were provided. The movement received some impetus as a result of pensions provided for veterans of the Civil War. Writers¹ generally attribute the beginnings of the

¹ A good general account of teachers' pension systems is found in Paul Studensky's *Teachers' Pension Systems in the United States*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1920, esp. chap. 1. See also Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teachers*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chap. 30.

modern pension and retirement systems for teachers to the plan first adopted in New York City.

Early Methods

These early systems were of the mutual type wherein the teachers made contributions for their mutual protection. Out of this movement mutual associations sprang up in several cities. They were loosely organized with no capital but with assessments when called upon. Benefits pertained principally to death and extreme needs, and were generally insufficient for the purpose. Teachers were still concerned as to insecurity due to illness, loss of position, and emergencies.

Sick benefit associations sprang up after 1885, providing not only for death benefits but for illness and accidents. They were usually financed through assessments and in some cases regular dues. By this time many insurance companies were extending their services in this direction, and stimulated teacher groups to extend their efforts to provide for old age benefits and disability annuities. These early efforts focused the attention of the public and the teacher on the problem of the aged, disabled, and incompetent teacher due to physical or mental incapacity. Naturally, older teachers were more concerned, since younger teachers were not generally interested in these benefits. Nor could low-paid teachers find even a pittance at the end of the ninth or tenth month to lay aside for their old age. Forfeited contributions of those who left the profession provided an additional source of revenue. Later some provision was made to refund contributions if a member left the teaching service.

Public Interest

The interest of the public in this movement was quite belated. It was first stimulated by teachers' requests for voluntary contributions. Gradually the notion prevailed that the public did have some equity in this movement. The general public came to understand that (1) the efficiency of the schools is directly affected by the incompetence of aged, ill, or disabled teachers, and (2) salaries were so low that teachers generally were unable to provide for their own superannuation or disability. Too many of the voluntary systems were actuarially unsound and inefficient in operation. Even voluntary public contributions were insufficient and unsound in principle,

especially since teachers were, in reality, public employees and entitled to consideration on a similar basis as the armed forces personnel. As a result three important retirement principles emerged: (1) retirement systems should be actuarially sound, (2) all teachers should make contributions and be entitled to benefits, and (3) state and local authorities should make a contribution to the retirement program.

Transition

Pensions and retirement systems for teachers have gradually developed over the years. In the early years of the present century, retirement systems were gradually evolving and becoming adapted to the needs of the profession. As later plans were developed, the principles evolved in earlier plans were included and various new features added. The evolution of teachers' pension and retirement systems is one of the most interesting aspects of teacher personnel administration.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

In order to have a thorough understanding of the pension and retirement, it is necessary to clarify the terminology associated with them. The following are the most significant.²

The *retirement allowance* is the total annual benefits which are paid to a retired member to which he has made joint contribution. A *pension* is that portion of the allowance based on public funds. *Annuity* is that portion of the allowance based on his own contributions. A system is said to be *actuarially sound* when payments are based on contributions with interest sufficient to meet exigencies of life expectancy, mortality, sex differences, and economic conditions. A *mortality table* shows for each sex and age the number of deaths to be expected within a stated period of time among a large number of persons of the same sex and age. *Fixed benefits* refers to the fixed per cent of the whole average or the final average salary over a certain period, or a flat amount of money. A *full reserve system* is one in which the public contributions are made during the members' active service to build a reserve in advance of need which re-

² For a complete list of terms, see National Education Association, Research Division, "Public School Retirement at the Half-Century," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1950, p. 118. See also Studensky, *op. cit.*

serve is held in trust until the retirement of the member on whose behalf the public contributions have been made. A *partial reserve system* is one in which only a part of the necessary public contributions are made in advance of need.

In understanding the terminology referred to above, it is necessary to comprehend it in relation to all aspects of a retirement system, such as the law itself, insurance terminology, and official reports and pronouncements. Since occurring benefits are based on many variables, such as age, salary, sex, length of service, each teacher should have an appreciation of his own particular status in regard to the system of which he may be a part. Perhaps there is no aspect of a teacher's economic life which is so little understood as his membership in a retirement system and the benefits to which he is entitled.

NATIONAL SCOPE AND SIGNIFICANCE

The scope and significance of teacher retirement systems nationally should be properly understood. Latest figures compiled by the National Education Association indicate that every state now has a teachers' pension or retirement system, some of these being integrated with federal social security. In addition, there are about thirty-eight local systems, with a total active membership (1950-1951) of 1,474,731. Nearly all of these systems gained in membership over the previous year. There are considerable gains in the number of retirants both for normal and disability retirement. In general, the average allowance in benefits increases with length of service. The typical monthly allowance is \$100, with lower allowances in many states and local systems. With increased years of service the benefits are more attractive. The average age of members at the time of retirement is well over age sixty, and in some state systems over sixty-five. Lowered amounts are paid for disability benefits. Payments to beneficiaries of deceased retirements differ greatly. Monthly payments also differ according to options chosen. Total assets in all retirement systems total nearly three billion dollars with total investments slightly less. These investments are placed in many types of interest bearing securities, such as government bonds, municipal bonds, utility bonds, and industrial and railroad bonds. In addition, there are mortgages of all types, school bonds, and other investments. Over one hundred million dollars are expended annually for retirement allowances to about 125,000 mem-

bers. Assets have increased by about five hundred million dollars each year, of which about one-half is contributed out to public funds.³

CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS' RETIREMENT SYSTEMS

In this section it is proposed to discuss the scope and principal characteristics of teachers' retirement systems in the United States. There is considerable variation in the nature and benefits of these systems. Care should be taken to observe differences in terminology and other characteristics in classifying systems and comparing their individual features.

Types

Two types of teachers' retirement systems are readily identified, namely: (1) state retirement systems for membership of all teachers and other personnel within the state, and (2) local retirement systems whose membership is confined to a particular city. All retirement plans are joint-contributory, that is, by members and from public funds. A pension allowance as has been noted is based on the public contribution, and the retirement allowance on the total annual benefits.

Table 12 indicates that seventy-two retirement systems have been identified, of which fifty-one are classified as state systems and twenty-one as local systems. All the forty-eight states have state systems of retirement and in addition, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. The local systems are found in the largest cities of the United States, some of which have been in operation many years.

Contributory Nature

Three groupings of state and local contributory public funds are indicated in the table, namely (1) state funds only, (2) state and local funds, and (3) local funds only, each having three subclassifications. The prevailing plan for state contributions is from the general revenues of the state. In a few instances, both earmarked taxes and proceeds of a special tax for the retirement system are indicated.

Of the seventy-two retirement systems only two are of the non-contributory type, namely Delaware and New Mexico. These sev-

³ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teacher Retirement System Statistics of 1950-51," June, 1952.

enty systems may be classified into two groups, (1) total fixed benefit plans where the total allowance to a member is computed in part on his own contributions, and (2) money purchase plans, where the allowance equals an annuity, actuarially determined on the member's accumulated contributions and the pension from state funds.⁴

TABLE 12. NUMBER AND SOURCES OF PUBLIC FUNDS FOR THE SUPPORT OF 72 RETIREMENT SYSTEMS^a

Type of Sources of Funds	Number of Systems Supported by Each Type	
	State Systems	Local Systems
1. State funds only		
A. General revenues or general school funds of the state	28	2
B. Earmarked state taxes	2	0
C. Special state tax for retirement system	1	0
2. State and local funds		
A. General revenues	7	3
B. General funds of state plus special local tax	3	1
C. General revenues, both state and local, and earmarked state taxes	1	0
3. Local funds only		
A. General revenues or general school funds of the local districts	8	10
B. Special local tax for retirement system	1	4
C. Earmarked taxes	0	1
Total Systems	51	21

^aThis table has been adapted from National Education Association, Research Division, "Public School Retirement at the Half-Century," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1950, p. 123.

Fixed and Variable Elements

Since every retirement allowance must have a fixed element and a variable element, the nature of each must be carefully predetermined. Illustrative of the fixed element is the percentage of the salary deducted; of the variable element, the amount to be made up by the state to meet the benefits guaranteed by law in the formula.

⁴For a more complete description of these plans see "Public School Retirement at the Half-Century," *op. cit.*, pp. 124-125.

Various factors are taken into consideration in determining the benefit. The percentage of the salary to be deducted has been pointed out. Length of service as well as prior service are important factors. Designated ages of retirement and sex of teachers affect the results, as does the actuarial factor. Special consideration is given in cases of specific number of years (such as twenty-five), and to disability. The determination of the salary basis upon which to compute the allowance may vary, as, for example, final salary, or average of selected years' salary. Joint contributory rates range as much as from 3 to 16 per cent. Minimum and maximum retirement allowances vary widely. Interest rates on investments of retirement funds are likely to affect the actuarial soundness of the system and require supplementary public funds. The maintenance of actuarial soundness is a technical matter which should be carefully determined.

Disability

Retirement allowances for disability is an essential feature of a retirement system. The disability may be of a temporary or permanent nature. Provision is made for return to service if the disability disappears. Allowances for disability are generally computed on the same or similar basis as for full retirement, with salary exceptions, as in length of service. In some instances it is based on a fixed percentage of the normal retirement allowance; in others on a fixed formula.

Workmen's compensation benefits are paid in lieu of disability retirement allowances or offset them in six states, and in certain cities. Distinction is occasionally made between ordinary and accidental disability allowances, especially if the disability occurs in line of duty. Discretion as to the amount of the disability depends on the loss of earning power. When death occurs in line of duty, the amount paid to widow or children in three states and a few cities may be a percentage of the final salary as a lump payment, or a pension based on a fixed formula over a certain period.

Survivor's Benefits

Nearly all state and local retirement systems provide some sort of benefit to the survivors of deceased retired members. Such benefits may be (1) an automatic payment with various options; (2) a

pension to the eligible beneficiary; (3) lump-sum payment based on unused balance of (a) accumulated contributions, or (b) total reserve; (4) annuities to beneficiaries; and (5) permission under certain circumstances to substitute certain options. There are so many variations of these plans that the reader is referred to the specific laws of the several states for more exact information concerning them.

Rights of Members Separating from Service

One of the principles of retirement which has come into general use is that of making retirement provision to suit each member's particular situation and problems. Such provision may pertain both to himself as well as his beneficiaries. In separating from service and before qualifying for retirement, the following provisions are found in practice: (1) refund of total accumulated contributions upon application (varying in accordance with age, length of service, and with or without interest); and (2) choice of an annuity (usually deferred) in lieu of a refund of contributions. About half of the seventy-two retirement systems permit members to claim a deferred allowance payable at the minimum retirement age, even though the member has separated from service and is not qualified for normal or disability retirement. These deferred allowances are subject to (1) specified years of service, and (2) regulations as to interest accretions. An innovation in Colorado and West Virginia provides for a status called inactive membership by means of which a member, upon separating from service, may qualify for a deferred allowance based on his own accumulations and public funds.

Qualifications for Benefits in Normal Retirement

When a person wishes to retire, either or both of two factors may be applied which determine his benefits. The first refers to reaching a specified age, as for example sixty-five years; the second pertains to number of years of service rendered. Both factors may be applicable in a member's case. He may retire at a certain age having completed a specified number of years of service. In twenty-four state and six local systems, members may retire regardless of years of service when they reach a designated age, averaging from fifty-five to seventy years. There are twenty-eight state and six local systems in which members may retire on service only ranging from

twenty to thirty-six years. Provisions are also made (1) for retirement at a reduced annuity for fewer years of service, (2) for increased annuity based on "money doubled" plans, usually applicable to those who enter service at later years, and (3) for delay in retirement in order to take advantage of increased annuity. In qualifying for ordinary permanent disability retirement, the member usually has no choice as to his options. In such cases, he might experience hardship due to fewer years of service and smaller equity.

Pension Credit Features

It has been pointed out that the amount of the annuity depends largely on the service credit of a member of the system. To this end efforts have been made to assure fairness in this regard for every year of service rendered. Pension credit for service before enactment of the retirement law is now a feature of most retirement systems.⁵ Credit is also allowed in many systems for out-of-state service. This is an important newer feature since it encourages teachers to assume positions in states other than their own without loss of service credit. It is closely allied to intrastate reciprocity features, although some states apply certain restrictions. Many systems have passed amendments designed to give credit to school employees who are absent from their duties because of military service or other leaves of absence with essential features applicable, such as number of years, make-up of contributions, and return to service within specified time.

A review of these features indicates the marked development of pension plans and retirement systems for teachers in recent years. This movement is in line with the advance of economic and social security for all groups. While the accruing benefits to members upon retirement are barely sufficient for the maintenance of a minimum standard of living, much has been accomplished in enabling retired teachers to live decently. Much credit for these improvements goes to teachers' associations which have labored consistently in order to attain retirement advantages for their membership.

PRINCIPLES OF A SOUND TEACHERS' RETIREMENT SYSTEM

Everyone has an obligation to make reasonable provision for the necessities of older years and disability in any form. Such provision

⁵ For a list of these states see *ibid.*, p. 163.

should be made not only for himself but for those who may be dependent upon him. The hazards of older years are well known, and have many implications, physical, mental, economic, and social. Men have discovered that provisions for these hazards can best be secured through group action. Much has been learned concerning pensions and retirement systems during the decades they have been in operation.⁶ We have noted many recent developments both in teachers' systems as well as in business and industry. Many practices and procedures have been developed and applied as systems are modified and improved. From these developments it is now possible to summarize the principles upon which a sound scientific retirement system can be constructed.

1. Since the state and teacher are contracting parties in any retirement system, membership in the retirement system should be compulsory for all teachers entering the service after the enactment of the retirement law.
2. It is desirable that teachers in service at the time of enactment become members because of advantages to them, thus giving strength to the system.
3. A good retirement system guarantees the interests of both teacher and public: (a) the teacher in that the retirement allowance should be sufficient to enable him upon retirement to live in reasonable comfort, and (b) the public in retaining efficient teachers, retiring them when their service becomes impaired or is unsatisfactory.
4. The costs of retirement should be shared equally by both teachers and public since each benefit in the relationship. These should be determined carefully at the time of enactment and reviewed in future actuarial adjustments.
5. Payments by both teacher and public should be made concurrently as service is rendered to insure the maintenance of adequate reserves. The retirement board should open an individual account with each individual teacher. Sums deposited should be held in trust for each individual teacher.
6. An adequate and actuarially sound reserve fund should be available to guarantee the annuity promised each individual teacher upon retirement.
7. Periodical actuarial investigations should be made of the retirement system to insure its financial soundness. Rates should be changed

⁶ Studensky, *op. cit.*, chap. I.

without hesitancy if it is found that there is any impairment in its financial structure.

8. Provision should be made for a retirement allowance for disabled teachers after a reasonable period of service. Proper physical standards at the time of entrance of each teacher will provide some protection against disability.
9. Accumulated deposits of each teacher should be returnable in case of withdrawal from service or death prior to retirement. At the same time upon return to service under certain conditions, the teacher should be permitted to return amounts withdrawn and receive proper credit.
10. The teacher should have a choice of options upon retirement.
11. Credit should be allowed for the service rendered prior to the establishment of the system, with funds provided by the public.
12. Active teachers should receive guarantees of benefits which they may have had under a previous retirement system, when such system is absorbed in another system.
13. Provision should be made for cooperative relations between the retirement systems of the different states, in order to permit teachers to change positions from one state to another without penalty, and with full recognition of previous service and benefits.
14. The retirement system should be administered by a retirement board of well qualified membership, representing both teachers and public. Membership on the board should be for a term of years with removal provided for cause.

ADMINISTRATION OF RETIREMENT SYSTEMS

With the exception of six state and three local systems, all retirement systems are administered by retirement boards established for joint public-employee control. Certain legal powers are attached to such a separately constituted authority. These boards have certain legal powers of administration control because of the complicated nature of retirement. In states where the control is vested in other than a separately organized board, the system is administered by a state officer such as the state treasurer (Delaware), or by another constituted agency or board (Nebraska), or by the State Board of Education (Wyoming). In Chicago and Omaha the local school board administers the retirement system.

Membership in separately established boards varies from three to thirteen members. Such membership is representative of both the teachers and the public, with state or other officers occasionally as

ex officio members. Joint teacher-public control is the prevailing practice.

Duties

The duties of retirement boards may be summarized as follows:

1. To invest the retirement funds of which they are trusted in such a manner as to insure maximum safety and fair interest return in accordance with actuarial determination.
2. To pass upon applications for retirement.
3. To determine the eligibility of members for retirement as approved by the executive secretary.
4. To buy and sell securities as the market seems to indicate.
5. To conduct periodic surveys as to mortality of members, service for members, actuarial status, costs of benefits, and future needs of the system.
6. To engage the necessary personnel in order to administer the system effectively.
7. To approve policies for the management of the system within the framework of the retirement law or regulations of state or city government.
8. To keep a record of all proceedings and publish regular statements of the condition of the retirement system with recommendations for its improvement.

All retirement systems must of necessity be administered within the framework of the state laws or local regulations governing them. In some states these are quite comprehensive and require further interpretation from time to time. There are many instances wherein specific decisions must be made by a retirement board or its executive officers as to the status of teachers or other members, and which may necessitate policy determination.

Legal Interpretations

Since the legal basis of all retirement systems is to be found in the statutory laws of those states, the courts have been called upon from time to time to indicate interpretations of these laws and determine precedents. The constitutionality of retirement legislation has been attacked on the following grounds: (1) it is class legislation; (2) the legislature grants extra compensation to public officers and employees; (3) public money is spent for private purposes; and (4)

deductions for teachers' salaries as contributions to the retirement fund constitute taking of property without due process of law. In the decision of the courts, the constitutionality of retirement systems has not only been upheld but materially strengthened. The chief determining factor in these decisions is the good effect of retirement on education generally.⁷

The courts have sustained the authority of local districts in broad terms to grant pensions. They have also sustained the power of the legislature to amend or abolish pension laws and to set up retirement systems. However, the issue here is one of vested contractual right to a pension by virtue of a statute, which cannot be impaired by subsequent legislation. There is some difference of opinion in court decisions on this point depending on whether the pension laws are contractual in nature or represent a policy of the state within the discretion of the legislature. Where the issue is called into question, a court decision in that state will need to resolve the matter. This point is fully affirmed in an Illinois case which reached the U.S. Supreme Court, to which the reader is referred.⁸

TEACHERS' RETIREMENT SYSTEMS AND FEDERAL SOCIAL SECURITY

Nature of Federal Social Security

The passage of the federal Social Security Act in 1935 has raised important questions in regard to inclusion of public school employees within its benefits. Many proposals have been made to include them within its provisions, but the idea of compulsory coverage has been discarded due to presumed unconstitutionality. To obviate this factor proposals were made to cover public employees by agreement between states and the federal government. Advocates of some type of merger came largely from members of those systems where provisions for benefits suffered by comparison. In 1950, amendments to the Social Security Act improved the benefits to such an extent that most public school retirement systems now suffer by comparison. It should be kept in mind that the federal act covers seven main provisions, (1) old-age assistance, (2) old-age

⁷ Robert R. Hamilton and Paul R. Mort, *The Law and Public Education*, Chicago, The Foundation Press, 1941, pp. 422-427; case citations and briefs are also indicated, pp. 425, 426, 427, 439, 460.

⁸ *Dodge v. Board of Education*, 302 U.S. 74; 58 S. Ct. 98; 82 L. Ed. 57 (1937).

insurance benefits, (3) unemployment compensation, (4) aid for dependent children, (5) maternal and child welfare, (6) public health, and (7) aid to the blind.

Comparative Study

As a result of recent federal proposals, the National Education Association made a comparative study of benefits under social security with teacher retirement systems.⁹ The conclusion seems to be that retirement allowances under state systems are generally much higher than those under federal law, and that even with proposed higher benefits of federal social security, benefits would exceed state systems in only one or two states.

Fears have been expressed in many quarters that amendments to the federal law to alter the coverage of teachers would impair many state and local retirement systems. Others have pointed out that any coverage of teachers under the federal plan would not remove the need for state and local systems to provide additional benefits. Both the nation and the state have responsibilities for old age protection of public employees. Furthermore, some advantage may accrue to insecure local systems because of added advantage of financial soundness through integration.

Conclusion

The conclusion seems to be that teachers have more to gain in the long run through strengthened state and retirement systems rather than through amalgamation with federal social security. Of great significance is the fact that control remains vested with the teachers themselves to administer and improve their systems as they deem advisable, especially since great advances have been made in these systems within recent years. It behooves all teachers to study carefully the provisions, both their own association's retirement system and the advantages of the federal Social Security Act, especially as both may be improved. The National Education Association points to the crux of the matter when they state that the future of retirement will depend to a great extent on how state and local systems

⁹ National Education Association, Research Division, "Teachers in Our Public Schools," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1949, pp. 154-155. See also National Education Association, Research Division, "Public School Retirement at the Half-Century," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1950.

bear up by comparison with Social Security and with provisions in other states and cities.

PERTINENT RETIREMENT PROBLEMS

The average life expectancy in the United States has been advancing rapidly during the past two decades, being now about seventy years for females and sixty-five for males. It will advance further with the progress in medical science and public health, and with greater attention to recreation, relaxation, and common sense in all things. This situation has stimulated the development of the welfare movement, which includes social security, public health, pension and retirement systems, industrial welfare, extension of medical services, and public recreation. Of particular significance is the growth of the welfare movement among industrial workers. Social security benefits have been extended to most of these workers. Several professional groups have developed their own welfare plans of a similar nature, such as clergymen.

The rapid development of pension and retirement plans for teachers should be understood as a part of a larger movement. By its rapid development, this movement has created many problems which are still evolving. A few of these will be considered.

Reciprocity

In view of the rapid growth in population within the past decade and especially the migration of people to certain states and within certain states, teachers have moved with those population groups.¹⁰ Specific provisions of state retirement systems often penalize teachers as they migrate, losing status due to differences in provisions of the retirement systems in those states. In spite of the complexities, some progress has been made in arranging reciprocity among the several state and local systems. These recommendations pertain (1) to amendments to state laws providing for deferred allowances, and (2) purchase of credit for teaching service on other states. A particular stumbling block is the problem of the public's contribution to the members' accounts.

The rate of contribution of a member originally determined at

¹⁰ For statistics on migration of teachers see National Education Association, "How to Provide Reciprocity in Teacher Retirement," Report of the National Council on Teacher Retirement, 1951.

the time the retirement system was established, was fixed after careful actuarial consideration of contributions and their investment at prevailing interest rates. It is well known that these rates have fluctuated considerably in recent years, seriously affecting a member's anticipated benefits and in some cases the soundness of the system itself. Although provisions are made for periodic actuarial surveys with corresponding readjustment of contributory rates, the public has been called upon to increase its contributions to such an extent as to occasion comment in some quarters concerning the high cost of governmental financial assistance. There is a serious question as to the point of maximum effort of a governmental agency in this respect.

Extension of Benefits

A recent phenomenon of pension and retirement systems has been the broadened base. Reference is made to lowering the retirement age, minimum benefits, retirement after specific years of service, and disability and death benefits. These entail increased contributions, unless made possible through excellent financial management and/or favorable actuarial situations. It is important to note that the trend is in the direction of a constantly broadened base of welfare and security and extension of benefits.

Effects of Teaching

The strains and stresses of teaching tend to cause emotional disturbances among some teachers which affect personality and lead to mental disability. Psychiatric disorders among teachers are increasingly common and have a direct relationship to temporary or permanent retirement. Some of these teachers may recover and return to service, others do not recover and are lost to the profession. This condition becomes a definite personnel problem. Wherever possible conditions should be removed which create them.¹¹

Individual Differences Among Teachers

Fixed regulations affecting the retirement of teachers does not take into consideration marked differences among teachers. For ex-

¹¹ James H. Wall, "Psychiatric Disorders in Fifty School Teachers," *American Journal of Psychiatry*, July, 1939, pp. 137-145 and George W. Hartmann, "Effects of Teaching on Teachers," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, December, 1947, pp. 178-182.

ample, a board regulation to retire all teachers at sixty-five may include certain teachers fully competent physically and mentally to continue to seventy or longer. Attempts to enforce such a regulation may do a hardship to some teachers because of smaller retirement benefits due to fewer years of teaching. Good teachers should be retained if they can make some contribution to the educational services especially during times of shortage.

A policy which has received little attention in retirement administration is that of permitting teachers to relinquish their duties gradually, instead of immediately. For example, a teacher may be retained for half-time service. Under this plan retired teachers may be paired, one reporting in the morning and the other in the afternoon. It is possible to pair a retired teacher with a competent married teacher who has left the service and who might prefer half-time service.

Teachers differ in physical capacity and endurance, especially in their later years. Schedules prepared in accordance with a fixed formula do not take into account these physical differences and often lead to hardship, even earlier retirement than is necessary. It is quite indefensible to require older teachers to carry schedules which include strenuous hall and playground duty, large classes, and extra assignments. Teachers weakened through illness should receive consideration when they return to service. Assignments can be fitted to the teacher's physical strength, even though some salary adjustment may be involved. It is always better to improve and prolong the teacher's health and maintain his efficiency through common sense and good judgment, rather than through an inhuman administration of a fixed schedule without regard to individual differences and local conditions.

THE RETIRED TEACHER

The Problem

At this point it is well to recall the two primary purposes of pensions and retirement: (1) protection of the boys and girls in our schools through the removal of teachers who have become ineffective because of advancing age and/or disability, and (2) provision for the welfare of teachers thus removed so that they can make the necessary adjustments and be enabled thereby to round

out their later years with a reasonable degree of security and happiness. If proper welfare preparation has been made, it is safe to say that most teachers look forward to retirement with satisfaction, feeling that the time has at last arrived when, released from their occupational ties, they can really do the things they have always desired to do. Unfortunately, many cannot look forward to retirement with such satisfaction. Nor do many of those, after retirement, find the Elysian fields they so fondly cherished. Perhaps the needed physical and mental stamina is now strangely lacking; perhaps the economic demands are greater than realized. Socially, adjustments are difficult to make. Inaction is tiresome and employment opportunities few.

Aging of Population Increasing

In 1940, one person in fourteen was sixty-five years or older, the number having doubled since 1900. The census for 1950 shows more than eleven million people over sixty-five years of age, 7.77 per cent of the total population. In 1980 it is estimated that one person in eight will be sixty-five years or older. A person of sixty-five has a life expectancy of about thirteen years. Thus this age group is increasing rapidly in numbers and is becoming an important segment of our population. There is a need for serious consideration of the problems of those who have retired. History records great achievements of men and women in later years. It is important that ways be found not only to enable them to adjust satisfactorily in every way, but to utilize their abilities and experiences in worthwhile achievements for the benefit of society.¹²

Retirement Readiness

The teacher needs to make careful preparation for his retirement; so that, when it comes, the transition may be easily accomplished. There is a challenge to meet the years ahead in such a manner as to make them rich and meaningful. They can become years of dynamic living, with full confidence in the future, not only as a reward for successful service rendered, but further achievements and greater happiness to come.

¹² Louis I. Dublin, "Our Aging Population," *Recreation*, February, 1950, pp. 538-539.

Retirement readiness¹³ for all teachers may be formulated through the following approaches to the problem: (1) development of a rich and satisfying philosophy of wholesome living; (2) awareness of retirement to come long before it arrives; (3) determination to resist thinking of retirement as the "grass of old age" with the teacher as the victim; (4) confidence in facing the necessary adjustment, especially in self-analysis as to their nature and solution; (5) adaptation of one physical and mental vigor to new and constructive activities; (6) careful adjustment as to financial security, health and its protection, religion, continuance of useful activities, part-time gainful employment, perhaps gradual retirement, living conditions with perhaps change of residence with the seasons, recreation and relaxation, such as hobbies, leisure-time activities, some professional attachments including professional reading, cultural and social activities, such as music, literature, dramatics, and travel, personal disposition and attitudes, best possible utilization of all resources at one's disposal, and philosophical approach to the inevitability of old age.

Poor retirement adjustment may be indicative in the reverse of the above, to which might be added failure to keep contact with one's professional and social friendships, unfortunate circumstances surrounding retirement which leaves a sense of bitterness, and oversensitiveness in any form. Perhaps much can be gained in preparing for retirement through exchanging experiences with those who have already retired. In the last analysis, each individual person has his own individual problems and adjustments to make which he must face with courage and confidence.¹⁴

Adequacy of Benefits

Perhaps the chief problem of the retired member is the inadequacy of his benefits available through his retirement. Inflation which has been characteristic of the past decade has found many retired persons in circumstances little short of destitution. Benefits computed on the basis of minimum security a decade or more ago

¹³ Ethel P. Andrus, "Retirement Readiness," *Journal of the National Education Association*, April, 1952, pp. 233-234. See also R. J. Havighurst, "Life Begins Again at 65," *Nations Schools*, July, 1950, pp. 23-25.

¹⁴ The reader will find an excellent discussion of the problems of retirement in National Education Association, Research Division, "Planning for Retirement," June 1950 (mimeographed).

is now far short of adequacy to maintain a decent standard of living. The low salaries of many teachers during even their most productive years left little available for savings unless that teacher was fortunate in investments, married well, or was left a legacy of some proportions. Even Federal Social Security does not promise more than a meager standard of living.

So the problem of the retired teacher becomes a difficult one economically. He is compelled to consider (1) a reduced standard of living, purchasing merely the essentials and denying the cultural and social advantages he looked forward to; (2) securing full- or part-time employment which will afford him proper support for himself and dependents, if any; and (3) consider the advantages of full security in later years through homes for the aged.

Homes for Retired Teachers

A partial solution of the housing problem of retired teachers is the maintenance of a home either for their exclusive use or as an occupant of a teacherage or similar institution. In a few instances such homes are maintained by state education associations; in others by foundations or private interests. Teacherages are usually provided by boards of education or maintained by teachers as a group. For retired teachers such homes offer many advantages if adjustments can be made to offset factors of family, social problems, and personal likes and dislikes. Such a project should be sponsored by state or local educational associations.

Associations of Retired Members

While the individual teacher should plan for his own retirement, associations of retired teachers can help each other in solving many of their problems. They can assist in finding suitable living quarters, securing part-time employment, securing more advantageous retirement legislation, in professional information, social activities, and matters concerning personal health and recreation. There is much satisfaction in meeting together frequently, reviewing past experiences, and discussing mutual problems.

Responsibilities of Educational Associations

Local and state teachers' associations have many responsibilities in regard to retired teachers. Every state association should have a

committee whose concern is the continued welfare of retired teachers. Local associations especially have an obligation in this regard. They can be watchful of the administration of the retirement system, help prepare older teachers for retirement, sponsor homes and better living conditions, provide professional, civic, and social interests, assist economically through part-time employment, credit unions, loans and gifts, give health and recreation information, and work for better conditions for all teachers. Since most of these responsibilities must be applied individually, many direct contacts are necessary. Perhaps there is no greater disillusionment than when one is forgotten by his friends.

IMPROVING THE RETIREMENT PROGRAM

In concluding this section, two important considerations should be obvious to the reader: (1) much has been accomplished in the way of teacher retirement and welfare, especially within the past two decades; and (2) much remains to be done before it can be said that retirement offers even a reasonable degree of economic security and welfare in general. These facts point out that every effort must be made to retain gains already secured and at the same time press for new gains which are logical and defensible.

Suggestions for the improvement of public-school retirement might be summarized as follows: (1) all retirement plans should be made joint-contributory with the amount of the contributor determined in the light of both prevailing and emergency economic conditions; (2) a minimum benefit for retirement either for age or disability should be determined in order not to penalize any member; (3) reciprocity and retirement should be extended and standardized; (4) more information and understanding are needed both by members and public as to the nature, needs, and benefits of their retirement systems; (5) attention should be given immediately to those teachers already retired who are now compelled to exist on substandard subsistence levels; (6) survivors' and death benefits with options therefore should receive further attention; (7) provision should be made for gradual retirement through part-time employment as well as return to service; (8) the legal basis of retirement should be more adequately determined in some states; (9) public-school retirement should receive the full support of the educational profession; (10) further study of the integration of state

and local retirement systems with Federal Social Security, each providing benefits to supplement the other. For example, Mississippi has repealed its retirement law and adopted a plan in which Social Security benefits are integrated with the state plan. In general, the recommended policy is that of a strengthened state retirement plan.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Trace out the history of the retirement system in your state. What are some of its desirable features?
2. Make an analysis of your state (or local) retirement system and compare your findings with other systems.
3. What are a minimum benefits which every retirement plan should provide? Justify your findings. Do teachers need greater or fewer benefits than (a) other professional groups, (b) industrial workers?
4. What do you mean by a (a) fixed element, (b) variable element, in a retirement plan? What is meant by actuarial soundness? Study other definitions for meaning.
5. Make a list of the desirable features of a sound retirement system. Defend your selection.
6. Analyze the proposed duties of a retirement board. Compare with those in your state.
7. Read one or more of the cases that have come before the courts in which some legal interpretations are given to retirement. How do these affect retirement?
8. Take a position with reference to Federal Social Security and teachers' retirement and defend it.
9. What defensible plan would you propose as to interstate reciprocity in teachers' retirement?
10. What are some of the variable factors growing out of individual differences among teachers which affect retirement?
11. What is meant by retirement readiness?
12. Interview one or more retired teachers of your acquaintance as to their problems. Compare with suggestions indicated in this chapter.
13. What are the advantages and disadvantages of homes for retired teachers?

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PART VI

*Administrative and
Professional Problems*

*The Administration of the School as
a Cooperative Group Enterprise*

A UNIQUE characteristic of American culture is the responsibility that each person must assume for his own acts and the preservation of the liberties he enjoys. This principle is the controlling factor in the spirit of free enterprise which is so distinctive of our way of life. As an outcome modern living has shown great advancements—even within a generation—with better health, better homes, higher standards of living, more leisure time, and greater happiness. These advances have been due to the efforts of many agencies and individuals working for a common purpose. The public school has an important share in this movement, more especially because the social ends for which it exists should reflect the characteristic spirit of democracy. The public should understand the place and functions of the school in social improvement and participate wherever necessary in the movement.

Since the objectives and practices of the public school reflect the democratic way of life, the education of teachers should contribute to a sensibility to the problems of our changing society. Newer methods of democratic educational leadership have emerged. Democratic practices are evident more and more in the administration of the educational enterprise, as is evidenced by the increasing volume of literature concerning democratic procedures in public school management.

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the development and present status of democratic school administration. The emphasis is upon cooperative group procedures. The chapter opens with the

significance of democratic processes in education. Changing concepts of educational administration are noted with the need for educational planning. Cooperative group processes are analyzed in considerable detail. The development of organized means for cooperative group action indicating areas of cooperation is discussed. Finally, illustrative programs of cooperative group action are included in order to point the way to successful practice.

DEMOCRATIC PROCESSES FUNDAMENTAL TO EDUCATION

Education and Culture

It is a truism of long standing that the culture of a society should be closely integrated with its educational philosophy and structure. Through education a culture is perpetuated and modified. Through the training of its youth, a culture can be preserved for generations; similarly an evolving culture can be developed through a dynamic education. As Beard so aptly pointed out, "They [our forefathers] demonstrated for all time that education is an enterprise worthy of the highest talents, inviting the boldest thought, and forever linked with the cultural destiny of the nation."¹

Our forefathers deemed public education indispensable for the perpetuation of our democratic ideals, and established public schools as an integral part of the social setting, requiring the attendance of all children. Public education tends to overcome the disruptive influences of society and prepares people to assume their natural obligations as American citizens. In a democracy, public education should be closely associated with its ideals, policies and institutions, its government and economy, and its arts and sciences. Public education becomes the concern of all since it pertains to the welfare of all. Private education is designed to perpetuate the culture of a particular group, and generally does not represent the broad culture of a civilization.

Primary Functions

Education then may be said to have two primary functions in our democratic society: (1) the transmission of the cultural heritage of

¹ National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1937, p. 67.

the race, its knowledges, aspirations, and values to link the past with the present, and to understand better the problems of the present through the long experience of the race. Those in charge of our educational enterprise have not only a moral responsibility to transmit the culture for enduring good, but in so doing have an obligation to truth itself and for its own sake, to seek it, defend it, and make humane use of it;² (2) in a democratic society, education must exceed this static concept. Education should seek ways and means to improve American society as now constituted. The lessons of the past and the present should be utilized to bring about social improvement. In accomplishing this dynamic concept, it should always be realized that *democratic processes* should always prevail in the process, since governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed who in turn must be properly educated to assume their responsibilities as citizens.

In any realistic administration of education, the whole philosophy and practice of democracy should be closely integrated. Education, especially its administration, is not a thing apart, unrelated to society. It is an integrated whole both in structure and procedure, since the assurance of democratic society as well as the administration of its educational enterprise cannot be taken for granted.

Individual Behavior

Spalding and Kvaraceus³ have pointed out that the aims of education are best achieved in terms of the ultimate behavior of persons in a democratic society. Examples of such behavior include respect for personality, consideration of rights of others, cooperation with others, use of talents for individual and social profit, discovery and acceptance of their own inadequacies and their improvement, assumption of responsibilities inherent in the freedom of a democracy, tolerance, right thinking and speaking, and right actions with due regard for the rights of others and for others. It is important to note that if each new generation is to acquire these modes of behavior in a democracy, they must be both learned and practised.

² The reader should compare Beard's discussion of the intrinsic and extrinsic values of education, *ibid.*, chap. 6.

³ William B. Spalding and William C. Kvaraceus, "What Do We Mean by Democracy?" *American School Board Journal*, February, 1944, p. 50. These authors have identified fifteen such behaviors.

This applies particularly to personnel associated with the public schools. Since they operate in an institution designed to preserve democracy, it is presumed that they should have not only a fundamental knowledge of the principles of and the manner in which persons behave in a democratic society, but an obligation to practice these principles within the framework of the educational organization and in their daily activities. To put the matter another way, behavior responses in a democratic society are best learned where they are practiced successfully. Furthermore, the condition under which persons work and the rewards which they achieve should be such as will insure that democratic behavior becomes satisfactory social behavior.⁴

CHANGING CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Origins of the Principal and Superintendent

The democratic origins of public education have emphasized throughout its history the importance of lay control. These representatives of the people who served on boards of education exercised such oversights as erecting and maintaining the schools, securing the teachers, and visiting and appraising the teacher's work. As schools grew in size and number, the principal-teacher emerged whose duties included routine matters. As his responsibilities increased, he became a full-time principal responsible mainly for the school's instructional activities.

The superintendent of schools emerged both as a county superintendent and a city superintendent. The county superintendent was provided for by law to administer and supervise the rapidly growing elementary schools of rural areas and small towns. The city superintendent was chosen from the ranks of successful, more likely ambitious, principals. His duties were largely supervisory; his administrative responsibilities developed slowly. Boards of education were reluctant to surrender the exercise of their controls, especially over business affairs. While division of authority as to educational (instructional) and operative (business) functions have now been written in many state laws, the executive leader with complete administrative oversight of the school system has emerged

⁴ National Society for the Study of Education, "Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration," *Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part II*, 1946, p. 58.

in some cities, due principally to professional competency and personality. To say that the typical superintendent of schools is currently the chief executive officer of the school system is hardly borne out in fact, although there has been much progress in that direction.⁵

Influence of Business and Industry

Modern patterns and practices in educational leadership have been influenced by contemporary practices in other fields. The *line* concept of school organization is similar to that of the army. Business and industry have developed a strong chief executive who, with the approval of the board of directors, determines policy and directs the operation of the enterprise. There is need for quick decision because of keen competition and survival. Pressures are exerted along the "line," with men selected for these positions because they can take orders and "get things done." Since many members of boards of education have been leaders of business and industry familiar with these practices, it is easy to understand how the schools came to apply them within the educational organization.

Authoritative Leadership

As an outcome of many influences previously referred to, a type of authoritative leadership has emerged in education. Schools have been multiplying rapidly with action needed. Decisions often have to be made quickly to keep abreast of growing school populations, needed school facilities, and adequate financial support. The *line and staff* concept of educational organization has become popular. Opportunity to advance within the ranks has depended largely on previous success and knowing the "right persons." The superintendent as well as his staff members have tended to become authoritative, successful as the enterprise fosters and order and harmony prevails. Administrative techniques have tended to become precise. Line authority with its directives is characteristic. Achievement has determined advancement. Until tenure had made its

⁵ The reader will find an interesting short account of the development of the superintendency in American Association of School Administrators, "The Story of the Superintendency," *The American School Superintendency Thirtieth Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1952, chap. 3. See also Arthur B. Mochlman, *School Administration*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940, pp. 10-11.

appearance, he who would not conform in the line was expendable.

Influences and conditions such as these have tended to fashion a superintendent who is housed in fine offices, surrounded by staff members and secretaries, feared by his teachers, unapproachable to pupils, and too often indifferent to public opinion. Dignity and respect for the office and usually for the incumbent are characteristic. Perhaps the times have needed such a person. This concept of educational leadership is still quite common.

Democratic Educational Leadership

The approach to democratic educational leadership is to be found in the modern emphasis on the historic place and function of the public school in American democracy. As the public ceases to regard government in terms of its police powers, and conceives it as a positive force for the advancement of society, attitudes and opinions concerning society's institutions undergo change. Thus education has come to be conceived as a social institution which should serve the interests of all. The welfare of each individual becomes the concern of society. Since society is becoming increasingly more complex requiring many new social services, the responsibilities of the school increase.

This concept of the place and function of education has led many writers to view educational administration as *social statesmanship*, in order to achieve important social ends through education. Educational policy has its origin in the society it serves. The attainment of these social ends becomes the concern of all those who are a part of the educational organization. It requires professional educational leadership of a high order.

Ideals of Democratic Educational Leadership

In democratic educational leadership, the first ideal is the recognition of the dignity and worth of each individual. The best society is composed of individuals who achieve their fullest potential. In this achievement, each must rely upon his own intelligence to solve problems through his own intelligent efforts. Thus it becomes diametrically opposed to their solution by appeals to authority.

The second ideal of democratic leadership places great reliance on the *cooperative* use of intelligence in the solution of problems common to the group, with the intelligence of *each* person essential to

such cooperation. There is now both leadership and fellowship exercised in democratic fashion. Naturally, there must be prestige of position, such as a designated person as a chairman. Wherever decisions emerge out of group action, personality becomes a factor of tremendous significance in leadership. Power and influence may be exercised through voice, persuasion, superior techniques, intelligence, and logical reasoning. Leadership is manifested both by its inward convictions and its outward signs. The former is characterized by the following: (1) every idea is entitled to a fair hearing; (2) growth comes from within the group rather than from without; (3) living together democratically; (4) democratic methods, and (5) persons merit love. Outward signs of leadership include: (1) effectiveness is measured by what happens to people; (2) group action increases the powers of each individual; (3) each individual and his contributions are subordinated in the larger welfare of the group; and (4) sharing is evident, with consensus the outcome of group deliberation.⁶

DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANIZED PROCEDURES FOR GROUP ACTION

The beginning of organized procedures for participation of the teaching personnel in school administration dates from the turn of the last century. Four agencies are easily identified which have developed during this period and are now quite common.

Teachers' Meetings

The teachers' meeting is perhaps the oldest form of group action in education. As a means of participation in the solution of administrative problems it began to assume some prominence about the turn of the century.⁷ Since that time school administrators have come to see that there are potential values in teachers' meetings, which encourage teachers to make suggestions as to problems, assist in their solution, and participate generally in the development and administration of school policies. Teachers have welcomed this changed emphasis over meetings concerned largely with announce-

⁶ For a more complete discussion of these principles, see *Educational Leaders, Their Function and Preparation* (a report of the second work conference of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration), Madison, Wis., 1948, chap. I.

⁷ Levi Seeley, *A New School Management*, New York, Hinds, Noble, & Eldredge, 1903.

ments, explanations, tiring reports, or educational minutia. In order to achieve these newer patterns, it is necessary to plan carefully with teachers through committees or individually. The chief characteristic of the democratic teachers' meeting is a common interest in the general welfare of the educational enterprise.

Teachers' Councils

Out of the teachers' meeting, especially of larger meetings of teachers, has emerged the teachers' council, appearing as early as 1908. Representatives of teachers functioned for the entire group in planning, presenting grievances, and assisting in solving their problems. Councils are usually advisory in nature and have become popular with both administrators and teachers. In order to be effective the council should develop proper means of communication with teachers. In some school systems teachers' councils have encountered considerable opposition, being used as pressure groups or for personal gain or being dominated by disgruntled teachers. Successful teachers' councils are effective to the extent that they work in harmony with teachers on the one hand, and the administration and board of education on the other for the solution of common problems.

Professional Staff Groups

In large groups of teachers, there are those who hesitate to express their views in the presence of other staff members, but are quite willing to do so in smaller groups or in private conferences with principals, supervisors, or the superintendent. For this reason it has been found more advantageous to keep the professional group small. This is ideal where the faculty itself is small. Larger groups of teachers can be subdivided according to some pattern of common interests. In this way common expression and consensus can be achieved through greater likelihood of individual participation.

Teachers' Professional Organizations

The development of local teachers' professional organizations received its greatest stimulus through the organization of the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association in 1913. These have been designed on the national organizational pattern with contacts maintained with state and national bodies.

State and national problems such as teacher preparation, salaries, working conditions, and retirement are reflected in local discussions. Teachers express their requests (and demands) through their officers or designated committees. Possibly the most significant outcome of this movement has been the development of a professional consciousness on the part of teachers as to their common problems and interests.

In summarizing these developments it is apparent that teachers as a group have been striving for some means of expressing themselves professionally. Many of the characteristics of democratic action are here present, although many administrators have not taken kindly to these manifestations of democratic interest. Even many teachers have not been professionally enthusiastic. A few successful democratic procedures did emerge, pertaining to such problems as selection of textbooks, revising the curriculum, better working conditions, and better salaries. Perhaps both administrators and teachers have not understood thoroughly the best procedure and have been indifferent where the results have not been to their liking.⁸

Need for Educational Planning

Educational planning should be devoted principally to the extension of educational opportunities and services to all children. The rise in the level of preparation and quality of teachers has made possible an increasingly responsible role for the teacher in planning. More and more is known of group processes and their application in educational planning and problem solving. As the improvement of education is extended to include the instructional processes, teachers can be assisted in planning by pupils, parents, and community groups.

PRINCIPLES OF GROUP PROCESSES

Dewey's Assertion

More than fifty years ago Dewey⁹ pointed out that unless the

⁸ For an interesting account of the development of these earlier procedures in democratic administration, the reader is referred to Willard M. Stevens, *Democratic School Administration in the Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1946, chap. 2.

⁹ John Dewey, "Democracy in Education," *The Elementary School Teacher*, December, 1903, pp. 193-204.

public-school system is organized in such a way that every teacher has some regular and representative way in which he can register judgment upon matters of educational importance with the assurance that his judgment will somehow affect the school system, the assertion that the present system is not, from the internal standpoint, democratic, seems to be justified. For no matter how wise, expert, or benevolent the head of the school system, the one-man principle of control is autocracy. The remedy is not to have one expert dictating educational methods and subject matter to a body of passive recipient teachers, but the adoption of intellectual initiative, free discussion, and consensus by the staff. The remedy for the partial evils of democracy is in appeal to a more thoroughgoing democracy.

The Authoritative Approach

In the authoritative approach, the educational leader (superintendent, principal, or supervisor) assumes direct responsibility for the oversight and direction of the educational enterprise. Its successes are often his successes, its failures his failures, a situation not unlike that in which we hold the coach responsible for the winning football team, continuance as a coach being directly related to the number of his winning scores. Devoid of tenure, all mistakes were laid at his door, and he was often quietly removed with too little regard for unfortunate conditions beyond his control. Where a superintendent models his concept of leadership on this approach, he may be lacking in an appreciation of the true characteristics of leadership. Gradually he should be willing to encourage participation on the part of his faculty in the determination of policy and the solution of problems which are the responsibility of all.

Sharing as a Basis

Regardless of the quality of the educational leadership and the success of the enterprise as measured by common acceptance, it is obvious that the democratic principle can best be achieved through sharing in its planning and administration. Such sharing, however inept the sharer, and however inconclusive the outcome, has something in it approaching common understanding and acceptance which promotes the common cause. Experiences thus gained lead to better results eventually, remembering at the same time that

democracy, being a process, is being achieved thereby throughout the cooperative experience. Thus, cooperative action releases intellectual initiative and inventive abilities and promotes expanding forces for the support and improvement of the educational enterprise.

Member Responsibility

The first approach then to democratic group action is the realization on the part of each member of a school staff as he enters it, that he has not only a definite responsibility for the faithful performance of those duties which may be assigned to him, but a moral obligation to defend the enterprise and engage cooperatively as well as singly in solving its problems and improving its status.

To this end there are important principles which should guide such a cooperative approach. Learning to work together to achieve common ends is an important element in social intelligence. The task of thinking together and arriving at common understanding may not be an easy one, perhaps because some individuals have never learned to work with others; perhaps because they insist on dominating a situation, refusing to cooperate if they cannot. The means of communication may be faulty. Social wisdom may be clouded by petty jealousies or piques. Personal interests may supersede group interests.

Guiding Principles

The following principles are offered as essential in group action:

1. Realization on the part of each member of the group that education is a democratic institution in which democratic processes should be characteristic.
2. Realization that within the group are intergroup characteristics which include loyalties, conflicts, irritations, cross purposes, traditions, and the like. Cooperative group action seeks not so much to suppress them entirely, although this may be necessary at times, but rather to utilize them in the common effort.
3. Realization of the necessity of the particular tasks to be accomplished and a willingness to accept the procedures necessary to achieve them.
4. In every group there are potential leaders, observers, resource persons, and perhaps others. These may emerge in different ways at different

times. It is important to realize just what contributions each member may make in a given situation.

5. The means of communication are essential within each group. Clear understandings should be accomplished slowly through patience and tolerance. Perhaps there is no greater aspect of the group process which tends to dissipate egocentric tendencies within the group than mutual understandings reached through adequate means of communication, and (we should add) greater stimulus to group action.
6. The growth of each member of the group should be realized through (a) learning to work with others, and (b) achieving some results thereby as a satisfying experience. Perhaps confidence in one's ability to achieve thereby becomes the pleasant warmth which stimulates individual growth.

Group Dynamics

Group dynamics is a term which has come to be applied to an examination and utilization of those forces arising within a group for the solution of common problems and the development of common understandings. Since individual differences loom so large, questions constantly arise as to definition of purpose, motivations, peculiar contribution of each member, best means of communication, evaluation of progress, redefinition of goals, revamping of decisions as reached, and the end result to be achieved. Thus within each group is a distinct pattern of forces, requiring for their release a peculiar application of such knowledges, insight, and techniques, as seem best under the circumstances. Factors of size of group, nature of issues, time sequence, and representation need special consideration as the need arises. The outcome is a definite evidence of better teamwork applied in creating more harmonious living within the educational enterprise.

Leadership and the Group

The achievement of satisfying results through cooperative group action requires a fine adjustment between dynamic educational leadership and the group. The educational leader becomes an integral member of the group as he manifests his leadership. In this way he becomes socially effective as he seeks to develop power *through* and *with* his group rather than *over* them. Thus he may become more effective as a leader as he identifies leadership in others and

increases their area of participation, on the theory that to produce initiative and constructive power is to exercise it.

Given the opportunity leadership can emerge from within the group. It can be easily identified, or what is more likely, arise in unexpected situations. Conflict is likely to arise at any time unless care is exercised to avoid it through compromise or group decision. Expediency may become a determining factor. One must not ignore the natural qualities of potential leadership manifested by the power of suggestion, strategic imitation, powers of exhortation and argument, peculiar personal qualities, devotion of followers, devotion to cause, publicity flairs, and devious subtleties adapted to the occasion to obtain results. Since these are manifestations of the effort of self expression, they should be accepted as a part of the process. There should be a constant effort to identify a liberal attitude, enthusiasm for the larger cause, a friendliness of approach, and seriousness of purpose.

Leaderless Group Techniques

A unique plan of identifying potential leaders first used in Germany and later used in England and Australia has been applied in the selection of personnel as leaders in many fields.¹⁰ The purpose of the plan is to check the reactions of groups to life situations and problems. The theory is that leadership will emerge in a group when confronted with certain situations. The plan operates as follows. The group under observation is asked to discuss some pertinent problem, the purpose being to assess intellectual skill. Some individuals express themselves with precision, others are vague and uncertain. All types of skills are revealed as social and manual; some seize the right moment to make a point using skills of persuasion, argument, humor, and emotion. Others belabor a point beyond necessity or reason. Socially, the candidate is most revealing. Some talk too much and rouse opposition, others remain silent too long or shrink from contact. Some multiply differences and difficulties and enjoy "sabotage." All of these characteristics and behaviors are assessed and profiled.

The candidates' profiles are compared and selection made. Pre-

¹⁰ Bernard M. Bass, "The Leaderless Group-Discussion Technique," *Personnel Psychology*, 1950, pp. 17-32. See also Bernard M. Bass, "An Analysis of the Leaderless Group-Discussion," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1949, pp. 527-533.

liminary selections are made in large groups and final selection in smaller groups. Thus it becomes a screening device and has been found to be effective in selecting leaders. It has great possibilities for use in selecting educational leaders.

AREAS OF COOPERATIVE GROUP ACTION

Democracy in school administration through some form of cooperative group action takes many forms and is concerned with many different educational functions. Most of the administrative functions of the school have been experimented with in some form in regard to group participation. Certain areas and functions are best adapted to teacher participation; others have some measure of adaptability. While the primary responsibility of the teacher is to teach, cooperative group action assists in facilitating his work.

In presenting areas for cooperative group action within a school system, the degree or extent of participation should be kept in mind and application made as seems advisable. Four levels are identified: (1) teachers are given complete administrative responsibility for the function; (2) teachers share the responsibility with the administrative personnel; (3) teachers are limited to offering suggestions; and (4) teacher action is restricted to a representative committee with varying powers to act. The degree of authority to act is an important factor in any consideration of teacher participation and should always be related directly to the location and degree of responsibility.

Instruction

Since the teacher is primarily concerned with instruction, it is obvious that the greatest opportunities for cooperative group action are concerned in this area. The following areas have served as bases for teacher cooperation: (1) curriculum, (2) instructional procedures, (3) selection of textbooks, (4) testing, (5) library services, (6) supplies, and (7) setting up educational objectives.

Pupil Personnel

All teachers are directly concerned with their pupils in many ways. The solution of administrative problems in the area of pupil personnel offering opportunities for teacher participation are (1) classification and promotion, (2) discipline and guidance, (3) rec-

ords and reports, (4) pupil adjustment, and (5) attendance problems.

School Activities

The rapid growth of school activities in the modern school system has created many administrative problems. Since teachers are so closely related to these activities, there are many opportunities for cooperative group action in solving these problems. In this area the following offer opportunities for teacher participation: (1) home-room activities, (2) assembly programs and use of auditorium, (3) club activities, (4) health and physical education policies and activities, (5) student council, (6) commencement, (7) dramatics, (8) school publications, and (9) noon-hour supervision.

Administrative Problems

One of the most recent areas for cooperative group action is with respect to problems of an administrative nature, formerly the direct responsibility of the administrative officers and the board of education. There are varying degrees of staff participation ranging from direct responsibility to committees, councils, and suggestions. Such areas include (1) the budget, (2) building plans and construction, (3) supplies, (4) care, management, and utilization of the school plant, (5) schedule making, and (6) determination of general school policies.

More and more teachers are assuming responsibility in regard to their own personnel problems. These areas include (1) teacher welfare, (2) in-service education, (3) faculty meetings, (4) tenure, (5) salary, (6) relations with parents and community, and (7) improvement of relationships with staff members.

The suggested areas of cooperative group action indicated in this section are not meant, in any sense, to be all-inclusive. Other areas may be easily identified. The occasion and the associated problems should become the basis for selection of the areas for cooperative group action, with procedures adapted to each situation as it arises.

ORGANIZED MEANS FOR COOPERATIVE GROUP ACTION

Group thinking in solving problems requires a definite plan of organization so that the socialization of personnel concerned can be affected and group action result. Such socialization requires fine

adjustment in human relationships. Satisfaction should be achieved not only through working together but in accomplishments through group action. The organization must be in accord with the nature of the personnel, the problems and local conditions. At the outset a policy should be adopted which establishes the principle of active participation of all on a thoroughly democratic basis. This should be thoroughly understood and appreciated. Furthermore, those associated in the enterprise should feel that they have a responsibility to take an active part and abide by the results, with the means best suited to the occasion.

The Individual School

A workable approach to cooperative group action is the development of participating units among the personnel associated with a particular school building. Here there are common problems and a community of action in attempting solution. Having selected the problem and outlined the *basis* for cooperative action, the best organized means of accomplishment should be determined. The selection of the means should be determined as democratically as possible. Several committees and subcommittees may be arranged, both advisory and with full responsibility and authority to make and enforce decisions. At some point there should be discussion and action by the full faculty. Progress should be reviewed from time to time and changes made as seems advisable.

Coordination of Building Units

Problems may be common to more than one school and their study may be extended beyond a single building to include several buildings, as all elementary schools. Assuming that there is a group organization within each school, a coordinating council comprised of representatives of all building groups can be formed to consider the relationship of problems on a wider scale and pool all group thinking and resources.¹¹ Such a council should include technical and other advisers whose knowledge and skills may be of invaluable assistance.

¹¹ For an excellent discussion of the organization and work of a coordinating council, see G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1945, pp. 84-90.

City-Wide Organization

The coordinating council as above referred to may be formed to include a group of buildings or include all buildings, teachers, and other personnel in the system. Naturally, such a group should be reasonably small in number and be truly representative of all personnel. It may be merely advisory charged with responsibility for definite items. Care should be taken that the lines of responsibility be clearly drawn, not only within the framework of the law but in response to acceptable administrative practice.

Teacher organizations have grown rapidly in membership and in influence and have been assuming responsibility for the solution of many welfare, instructional, and in-service problems.

Acceptable principles and techniques of cooperative group action should always be in evidence. Members should not only be familiar with these techniques, but should grow thereby in dynamic power through their application. Something should happen because of the experience to each person involved. Each member of the group should learn to suppress his own personality and desires, and operate within the cooperative group pattern.

Relation of Purpose to Organized Means

In developing the organized means for cooperative group action, the purpose of the action should be kept in mind. The nature of the problem under consideration will determine in part the form of organization. If this is concerned with teacher morale and self-improvement, the means will naturally be different from that concerned with budgetary considerations or building management. The goals to be achieved should be clearly thought through. Solutions which require administrative and board of education participation and approval should be considered in the light of all possible consequences of action, such as increased taxes, and inconveniences to pupils or parents. All group activities should lead to improved morale, redress of grievances, solution of problems, and growth of personnel. As persons become more skilled in cooperation and in the scientific approach, the quality of their efforts will improve and better schools will result.

ILLUSTRATIVE PRACTICES OF COOPERATIVE GROUP ACTION

Formulating Policies

Educational leaders have found the task of determining school policies affecting personnel difficult at best. Their acceptance by the staff has not always been possible without some pressure and resulting dissatisfaction. Better results are being achieved where group action is used to determine policies, thereby overcoming indifference and even opposition among teachers. An interesting illustration of this outcome of the group process was developed in Los Angeles County, California.¹² Representatives of the board of education, teachers, and parents gathered around a common table to consider school policies and problems and what to do about them, on the assumption that democracy to be realized should be practiced. The superintendent made it clear that these are the community's problems and all groups are entitled to a share in their solution. Each member of the staff then has an obligation to see that the decisions reached are achieved.

Organization and Procedures

In setting up a plan of organization for group action in a school, Hubbard¹³ has identified five steps, namely (1) preparation, (2) planning, (3) spirit, (4) organization, and (5) vision. Each staff member should be fitted into the plan in accordance with his aptitudes. Custodians, nurses, mechanics, and clerks should be included in the organization. The town meeting plan has proved successful in small systems, in which the entire group meets for general discussion, with small committees to study specific problems. Larger systems will organize with representation in some form on all levels. Consultation where provided should not be confused with dictation. Procedures in successful democratic plans as found in practice vary widely. Most prevalent approach is through solving problems as they emerge. A good example is described by Cohler¹⁴ in which the

¹² C. C. Trillingham, "Principles and Policies vs. Personalities and Politics," *The American School Board Journal*, March, 1949, p. 35.

¹³ Frank W. Hubbard, "Ways of Organizing to Secure Democracy in Administration," *The School Executive*, December, 1945, pp. 70-71.

¹⁴ Milton J. Cohler, "The Faculty Helps Select the Assistant Principal," *American School Board Journal*, February, 1949, pp. 33-34.

faculty helped to select an assistant principal, with gratifying results in morale and cooperation.

The committee plan is widely used with membership in equal ratio among faculty groups. This plan operating in Newark attacked difficult school problems, such as sick leave, schedules, drives, parent-teacher associations, and faculty facilities, with gratifying results.¹⁵ Variations of the committee plan are the round table, the advisory council, and teacher conferences. Examples of these have been aptly illustrated in Lincoln, Nebraska, New Rochelle, New York, and Shaker Heights, Ohio.¹⁶ Carr points out the importance of open channels of communication and the need for increased efficiency as an outcome.

School Survey Practices

One of the newer developments in school survey practices is the use of cooperative group procedures and include groups both within the school and the community. An excellent example occurred in Waco, Texas.¹⁷ Faculty committees studied every phase of the school system, discussed their findings, and made recommendations. Following the release of these recommendations, a planning council was formed in order to improve conditions in the school in line with these recommendations.

The desirable outcome of school survey procedures and recommendations should be the improvement not only of school facilities and practices but community improvement as well. This can best be accomplished where citizens have been included on committees. Recommendations directly affecting the community such as provision for better facilities, better financial support, a broader curriculum, adult education, cafeterias, and kindergartens are likely to receive greater attention when citizens have a part in their fulfillment.

¹⁵ G. P. Nickle, "Democracy in Administration Through Committees," *Clearing House*, March, 1947, p. 390.

¹⁶ William G. Carr, "Efficiency Through Democratic Administration," *Journal of the National Education Association*, March, 1942, pp. 83-84.

¹⁷ Marion C. Butler, "Cooperative Progress in Waco, Texas," *American School Board Journal*, February, 1949, pp. 17-19, "How to Conduct a Citizens' Survey." For an excellent discussion of the procedures necessary in conducting a citizen's school survey, the reader should consult Merle R. Sumption, *How to Conduct a Citizens School Survey*, New York. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952.

Improving Community Living

Education can and does improve community living. There is a changing role of the school in American life with the changing nature of our society. Better living within the community should involve more activity through the educational processes. This point of view is strikingly illustrated in numerous incidents of community improvement as an outcome of cooperative action between school and community reported in *The School Executive*.¹⁸ Involvement of citizens, youth, and school personnel is reported through councils, committees, and other instances of school-community interaction with outstanding results.

In-Service Professional Improvement

Many of the programs of democratic administration have been initiated for the purpose of in-service improvement of the staff. School practices are improved thereby, problems solved, and morale heightened. Such a program of continuous year-round in-service education of teachers organized under the direction of a central advisory council has been paying good dividends in Orange, Texas.¹⁹ This plan includes workshops, area meetings, conferences, and committee groups. Menke²⁰ reports similar cooperative group techniques to be invaluable in developing dynamic teaching. All such activities should be instruction-centered, for unless something happens to children as a result, the social purposes of education are hardly achieved. In Rochester, Minnesota,²¹ much emphasis has been placed on providing the best possible education for each child through cooperative group techniques. Given the focus of understanding each child better, objectives are clearly sought, interest is sustained, and the entire teaching process better realized.

Curriculum Improvement

The improvement of the curriculum is a major administration activity. The "scissors and paste" method of past decades has given

¹⁸ "School and Community Improvement," *The School Executive*, January, 1953, entire issue.

¹⁹ C. O. Chandler and R. J. Free, "A Continuous Cycle of In-Service Education," *Nations Schools*, June, 1948, pp. 40-41.

²⁰ Robert F. Menke, "How to Prevent Static Teaching," *Nations Schools*, July, 1948, pp. 22-23.

²¹ N. Durward Coey, "When Teachers Participate in School Administration," *Nations Schools*, April, 1950, pp. 61-62.

way to modern group procedures. Outstanding among these is the system-wide plan of focusing the attention of the entire school system on curricular improvement with every staff member engaged in the endeavor. The theory is that there is learning through participation. Classroom instruction improves with teacher growth. The Yearbook²² *American School Curriculum* has identified five plans for initiating curriculum improvement, all of which involve group action in some form, namely: (1) system-wide plan, (2) the in-service growth programs, (3) the practices that begin in the classroom, (4) the programs that begin in individual schools, and (5) the special interests beginning. Programs can extend beyond the system to be included within regional and state-wide plans, and through larger teacher associations. The role of different groups is fully described.

Supervision

The supervisory process is being improved through cooperative group techniques. Teachers do not fear supervision when they assist in defining it. Such definitions include the objectives, nature of the program, techniques, and types of services available. Harman²³ has pointed out the significance of supervision when adequately defined and when it involves the cooperative efforts of the entire school.

Re-Education of the School Administrator

While the impetus for the development of a program of democratic participation of the school staff may arise within it, more often it is initiated by the administrator himself or a member of the central staff. The administrator should assume such leadership rather than be forced through some serious situation to take action. The school administrator should be conscious of his *responsibility as the educational leader of his staff*. He should have a definite plan of action. His own ideas should be constantly reorientated so that objectives can be redefined and plans of action agreed to. Once begun

²² National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, *American School Curriculum, Thirty-First Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1953, p. 4.

²³ Allen C. Harman, "Planning Programs of School Supervision," *American School Board Journal*, November, 1948, pp. 21-22.

he should carry through. Dawald²⁴ has pointed out how this can be accomplished through curriculum planning, pupil study and guidance, selection of staff, and staff morale. Watson²⁵ points out that the vexing problems of the educational leader can be eased through participation, since he is not a "miracle man," although often expected to be one. Characteristics of the school administrator expressed in terms of dictatorship, authoritative leadership, and executive direction should be replaced by newer approaches to human development, characterized by motivation, inspiration in leadership, counseling, deliberation, and educational statesmanship.

Evaluation

Increasing attention is being given to plans for evaluating programs and outcomes involving cooperative group techniques. From the standpoint of the administrator Simpson²⁶ has proposed a series of forty questions which an administrator might ask himself in order to diagnose his own strengths and weaknesses in the practice of democratic leadership. These pertain to formulating educational philosophy and practices, and giving democratic leadership to the staff. Superintendents generally approve democratic action in their school systems after experiencing its possibilities and outcomes.²⁷ Essert²⁸ has stressed constant evaluation during the progress of the program. Classroom teachers can apply the same tests as to their own development as well as the outcomes achieved. For teachers the best test is one of individual professional growth and progress in the attainment of the cooperative principles.²⁹

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

If democracy as a way of living is to prevail, much will depend upon the strength and preservation of democratic principles in

²⁴ V. F. Dawald, "The Superintendent as the Education Leader of His Staff," *Nations Schools*, September, 1949, pp. 47-48.

²⁵ N. E. Watson, "Not a Miracle Man," *Nations Schools*, February, 1949, pp. 36-38.

²⁶ Ray H. Simpson, "The Administrator and Democratic School Practice," *American School Board Journal*, November, 1949, pp. 29-31.

²⁷ Compare R. O. Nelson, "What a Superintendent Thinks of Democracy in School Administration," *The School Executive*, December, 1945, pp. 72-73.

²⁸ Paul L. Essert, "Responsibilities of Superintendents of Schools, Boards of Education, Teacher, and Public," *The School Executive*, December, 1945, pp. 66-68.

²⁹ Annie Laurie McDonald, "What a Classroom Teacher Thinks of Democracy in School Administration," *The School Executive*, December, 1945, pp. 73-74.

America. The public school must remain the bulwark of democracy among the youth. This is all the more necessary because of an increase in group tensions of various sorts. Unnatural leaders of various pressure groups have arisen, some of them making violent attacks on our public institutions, especially the public schools. It goes without saying that these schools must be not only democratic in their administration, but characterized throughout by evidences of democracy in action.

Democratic administration is best manifested by its spirit, which impels those who are a part of the educational enterprise to undertake its improvement through well tested and effective cooperative group procedures. The fundamentals of democratic school administration must always be in evidence and the outcomes evaluated and applied to an ever improving educational system. Thus there is shared responsibility which becomes eventually a way of living for all men.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Indicate five reasons why democratic procedures are fundamental to educational practice.
2. What evidence can be presented to support the contention that youth tends to react much as it has been taught and experienced? Apply this statement to the democratic atmosphere of a school. Are there exceptions?
3. How do you account for the marked changes which have characterized modern educational leadership?
4. In parallel columns compare two superintendents or principals of your acquaintance, one autocratic and the other democratic. Comment.
5. What is meant by cooperative educational planning? Describe a school situation in the process of cooperative planning. How did they proceed?
6. Outline the essentials of group dynamics. Apply to a local situation.
7. Show how the leaderless group discussion techniques can be applied in a faculty.
8. Make a list of all possible organized procedures for securing group action.
9. In parallel columns list those areas which can be utilized for developing cooperative group action (a) always, (b) occasionally, (c) seldom or never.

10. Set up a plan to evaluate (a) illustrative plans as revealed in the literature; (b) one or more plans as you have found in practice.

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Problems Related to the Freedom of the Teacher and Teaching

FREEDOM means many things to different people. It has been interpreted in many ways over the centuries and has been applied differently in government, in economics, and in teaching. Freedom has become so deeply ingrained in our concept of democracy as to be imbedded in our constitution and our institutions. Schurman¹ once declared that "nothing is so fatal to the welfare of a community, and nothing so inimical to the progress of civilization as interference with liberty." This applies to liberty in every form and includes freedom of teaching. So far-reaching is this ideal that its only limit is the safety of the republic when menaced by violence or when the liberties of others are invaded.

Since the public school is the principal institution for the preservation of our liberties in a democracy, much depends upon the practice of liberties in the institution itself. Its pattern of living and expression should be characteristic of the highest ideals of freedom and liberty. Nor must it be forgotten that democracy demands of its members certain loyalties² which are the heritage of all and must be preserved if the democratic way is to survive.

This chapter is a discussion of the problems associated with freedom of teaching and of teachers. It points out the meaning of academic freedom, its history, and the current status of the freedom

¹ Jacob G. Schurman, "Liberty and Progress," *School and Society*, August 28, 1920, p. 133.

² For a complete discussion of these loyalties the reader is referred to National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*, Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1941, chap. 5.

of the public-school teacher. Attempts to control the freedom of teaching are brought about through loyalty oaths, sedition laws, policies of professional organizations, and state and local rules and regulations. A series of principles pertaining to the limitations on freedom of teaching are presented. The chapter closes with a statement of administrative relationships to the problems of freedom and of teaching in the schools.

MEANING OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Freedom is a hallowed word in the minds of all people. More often associated with freedom from physical restraint against which mankind has struggled for centuries, freedom from control of the mind and the spirit has a far more significant meaning. Release of the enslavement of the individual from his physical captives may be more easily accomplished by force and bloodshed; yet subjection of the mind accomplished through its mental and moral enslavement leaves its lasting effects.

The Great Teacher and Truth

Two thousand years ago the Great Teacher cried out, "And ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free" (John 8:32). It is through the release of the mind to know and understand truth, to seek it and apply it, that education performs its greatest service. To the teacher is committed that trust to release the mind and the spirit, so that the youth may know truth and apply it to his life through the freedom which is his birthright. Since the preservation of democracy through the public school is its very essence, all that democracy means in the way of freedom and opportunity must be characteristic of the public school. Teachers as the guardians of that trust through education must not only be imbued with the spirit of truth but must maintain those principles and procedures necessary to infuse it through their teaching. Principal among these is freedom of teaching.

Emergence of the Individual

We have defined education as having two basic characteristics, (1) the preservation of the past, its history, traditions, mores, and values, and (2) its growth and development through the democratic process. The gradual emergence of the individual through the de-

velopment of his personality is a direct outcome for the attainment of these ends. This has been the struggle of the centuries—to free the individual so that through freedom he may realize the good life. In its achievement there is a constant struggle with conservative forces, elements of tension, and conflicts of values. Submission to things of the moment may be both temporary and necessary; yet within each one is a certain self assertiveness which strives toward freedom. In fact, the process may be one of constant readjustment and growth. The exploration of natural laws and the rediscovery and application of their principles enables the individual (and his group) to achieve the good life. The end result may be said to be a harmony of individual personality with the highest values obtainable at the moment.

Meaning

Since the teacher then becomes the *sine qua non* of the educational process, it follows that his activities must constantly be bathed in an atmosphere of freedom. McCallister has defined freedom in education as "the finding, maintaining, and extending of the highest relevant values common to the pupils' conception of the requirements of his life and the educators' conception of the aspirations that sustain all human society."³

Freedom of teaching, commonly termed academic freedom, has been variously defined.⁴ It has been defined as the freedom of the teacher or research worker to investigate and discuss problems of his science and to express conclusions through publication and instruction without interference from ecclesiastical or political authority or administration officials, unless his methods are found by qualified bodies of his own profession to be clearly incompetent or contrary to professional ethics.⁵ Freedom of teaching means freedom of the teacher to teach as his conscience sees the truth. It means the right to speak freely as a competent scholar and seeker of the truth, with a clear sense of responsibility for the truth and a deep sense of

³ W. J. McCallister, *The Growth of Freedom in Education*, London, Constable and Company 1931, p. 564. This is an excellent critical treatise on the subject.

⁴ For a review of several definitions of freedom of teaching, consult Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, chap. I.

⁵ *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*, I, 384.

the teacher's part in the development of youth. To this end the teacher must have a certain control over the curriculum, textbooks, teaching methods, and the right to discuss knowledge and practices critically.

Academic freedom granted to a teacher implies a technical competency in his profession. It implies that no one is constrained to accept conclusions reached through fear, intimidation, or subordination. Academic freedom is related to scientific inquiry; that is, through the scientific method, new truths are discovered, critically evaluated, and applied before old truths are discarded. The teacher must be protected in his right to teach, in his tenure, and in his quest for new knowledge, and their application.

Freedom of the Learner

While our discussion thus far has emphasized academic freedom as the prerogative of the teacher, it is easy to lose sight of the fact that the real issue is the freedom of the learner to learn. Thus in applying censorship of some kind to the activities of the teacher as he teaches, there is a censorship imposed at the same time on the learner in limiting his field of knowledge, distorting his range of vision, and misguiding his efforts in the direction of truth and right conduct.

In applying these principles the rights of the learner should be pointed out clearly. The maturity (immaturity) of the child is a primary consideration. The child's first problem is to understand the nature and meaning of life about him. To do so requires certain things to be learned (mastered) before critical evaluation can take place. This applies as well to conformity (obedience) to authority within the limitations of guidance. The economic and social status of the pupil may be an important factor, as well as the preferences of the parents and the community. Ideals and standards vary widely with schools and with teachers. The child's personality must be reckoned with, his ability and interests, since children differ in many ways. There are problems of environment, receptive attitudes, and ability to learn. A free education should enable the individual pupil to penetrate the recesses of his own nature and understand and surmount the forces of his own environment. The teacher's help should be positive and constructive, sincere and far-reaching—

to the end that truth shall prevail and the mind be constantly released.

HISTORY OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Impact of Social Conflicts

The history of mankind is a record of conflicts. Behind every conflict involving physical force and mastery is the conflict of ideas and traditions, with emerging ideologies striving against contemporary social acceptance or control. To transmit the contemporary way of life through teaching may be currently acceptable, but to teach a different way even though supported by discovery, experience, experimentation, or even logic, may be unacceptable. Thus a Socrates who taught that man's freedom could only be attained through a proper understanding of the laws which govern his actions and his environment was accused of corrupting the youth and forced to drink the poison cup. Jesus who came to teach men the meaning of the abundant life was accused of sedition and blasphemy and died by crucifixion. Through the Middle Ages, those who taught against the traditions and beliefs of the day suffered death for their pains. Perhaps there is no more pathetic figure in all history than Galileo (1564-1642), who through the telescope first examined heavenly bodies and made many wonderful scientific discoveries in astronomy, dynamics, and falling bodies but was forced to deny openly the existence of the great truths he had discovered and live in strict seclusion for the rest of his life. In challenging the existing knowledge of their day, these men were denied freedom of expression and suffered as a consequence.

Teachers in Early American Public Schools

Most of the early colonists in America brought with them an educational heritage. They soon established schools for the education of their children. But teachers of the day were both untrained and difficult to secure. As long as the teacher conformed to the social patterns, his teaching was not challenged. Tests were imposed on him, such as moral fitness, religious orthodoxy, and ability to discipline. If he was found fit to teach he was given a license which he held during his incumbency for good behavior. Since these were days of strict censorship, it was not to be wondered that social conformity must be accepted if one wished to remain a teacher.

Impact of Social Changes

But it was also a period of social, economic, and political ferment. Old traditions gave way gradually to new social ideals. Public education received a great impetus as the result of the new principles of freedom accepted as an outcome of the Declaration of Independence and the events which followed. The very nature of democracy demanded an educated citizenry in which the public schools would have a major role. The teacher's freedom was greatly enhanced through the decline in religious denominational control and the rise of a new political freedom. In spite of this advance, the control of education remained local in each community, where the prevailing viewpoint was likely to influence the freedom of the teacher and his teaching. The local control of education has been one of the distinguishing characteristics of American education. The rise of academies and colleges tended to increase freedom in teaching, unless under the domination of a particular religious group. Where freedom to learn existed, freedom to teach was more likely to result.

Freedom of Teaching in America

It is not possible in this brief section to recount the development of freedom of teaching in America.⁶ Many influences have been brought to bear upon the concepts of teaching. Most significant of these is the scientific movement with its discoveries and especially its methods. Here there is the impact of new truth through discovery and experimentation on old truths and traditions, some of them so fundamental as to affect materially our existing way of life. New ideologies such as the Marxian philosophy have emerged whose impacts on society are far-reaching. War brings about serious limitations on free speech and communication. A dominant community group may insist that its prevailing culture must not be impaired through freedom of teaching and social intercourse. Deep-seated sectional interests are maintained involving racial prejudices, economic barriers, and political alignments. All of these affect freedom of the teacher and teaching.

While much progress has been made in securing freedom of

⁶ The student should read Howard K. Beale, *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941, for an authoritative account.

teaching in America, there are still serious limitations on freedom of teaching in our public schools. The teacher himself is an important factor. Much depends on his personality, his education, his approach, and his insistence on his prerogatives as a teacher. Difficulties arise through a lack of understanding and true appreciation of the profession of teaching, both on the part of the teacher and the community in which he teaches.

CURRENT STATUS OF THE FREEDOM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHER

Approaches to the study of the limitations on the freedom of teachers to teach are twofold: (1) the desire of communities to secure and retain teachers who may be examples of inspiration to the pupils and citizens in the community, and (2) the desire of selfish interests to impose rules of conduct and invade the teacher's rights as an individual and a citizen. In either case the result is one of limitations, however meritorious the purpose may be. Moreover, a meritorious purpose may result in distortion of the teacher's work, and degenerate into persecution. Public opinion is easily influenced where the rights and interests of youth are concerned, because of real or fancied invasion of parental or community privileges.

To ascertain the status of the freedom of the public school teacher, the National Education Association conducted a study of the conditions which limit the academic and personal freedom of public-school teachers.⁷ The findings of the report will be presented under subheads which follow.

Freedom in the Classroom

Since the heart of teachers' academic freedom is in its effect upon the learner, the question arises as to how free teachers are to discuss all topics as they arise in the classroom. Most of these issues center about the discussion of controversial subjects. Topics causing greatest difficulty are race relations, economic problems, separation of church and state, communism, and sex. Limitations and objections are attempted by school boards, the faculty, outside pressure groups,

⁷ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, "The Freedom of the Public School Teacher," Washington, D.C., The Association, 1951.

and the "general climate of opinion." Where such conflicts in teaching arise, school administrators and teachers themselves should be active in sustaining the principle of freedom in teaching. Since this is an area of considerable consequence, two observations are apparent: (1) our teachers need more (not less) freedom in teaching subjects listed as "controversial," and (2) more teachers of independent thought and speech are wanted in many school systems. Teachers should encourage the public to examine all aspects of the issue. Generally, where there is more light, there is more understanding.

Teachers' Oaths

One evidence of the degree of freedom enjoyed by the teacher lies in the imposition of restrictions through teachers' oaths. The form of these oaths varies widely. They may be no more than a pledge to fulfill faithfully the duties of a teacher. They may require the teacher to pledge allegiance to federal and state constitutions. They may require him to state that he is not a member of a subversive organization. Other statements may be included. Oaths may be taken by teachers in groups or singly. Investigations may be made with dismissals for proven disloyalty. Such dismissals are rare and are accompanied by much unpleasant publicity. Difficulties arise in determining the exact meaning of disloyalty, nature of evidence, and what is a subversive organization. There is always present the effect of taking any oath which impinges upon the academic freedom of teachers. These will be discussed further in a later section.

Textbooks and Teaching Materials

Effective teaching requires the use of appropriate textbooks and teaching materials adapted to the maturity levels and needs of pupils who use them. The selection of these materials is an important professional prerogative, and is becoming more and more a function of the teacher through committees. From time to time outside groups pressure the schools to discard a particular textbook or other teaching materials based largely on hearsay or interpretation of passages in the text taken out of context. Most of these complaints are referred to the administration. A few reach the stage of public investigation, resulting in violent community reaction. The out-

come is frequently the enforced withdrawal of the text accompanied by unfortunate criticism of the teacher.

Personal Life of the Teacher

As teachers are citizens, their personal conduct should be subject only to those social controls required of all citizens. Yet a teacher by his personal life and example exercises a tremendous influence on the personal life and character of his pupils and the community. Restrictions on the personal life of teachers which impinge on his freedom may be expressed by (1) school-board regulations, and (2) public opinion. The former may place restrictions on teachers as to drinking, smoking, part-time employment, and marriage. In the latter instance, the community may identify situations as taboo, the violation of which renders the teacher unfit for further service. Much depends on the community and the times. Teachers who live within the community may be more restrained as to their personal living than those who live outside the community. Discipline of a teacher for any infraction may be a reprimand, demotion, or even dismissal. It is obvious that even the *charge* of unacceptable personal conduct may lead to impairment of effectiveness, and result in resignation, either by request or dismissal. In any event the teacher's usefulness may be at an end.

Civil Liberties

Discrimination in any form should not be applied to teachers merely because they are teachers. They should be allowed full enjoyment of their civil rights and liberties. Infringement on civil liberties may have to do with (1) religion, (2) race or nationality, (3) political activity or affiliation, (4) jury service, and others. In this regard the climate of public opinion may be a potent factor. For example, racial preferences may deny the employment of a member of a minority ethnic group. Political restrictions may extend to taking an active part in elections, becoming a candidate for office, labor union organization activities, or criticizing public officials. Many school boards frown on teacher activity in the direction of teacher organizations, activity for higher salaries, and any show of concern with school-board activities. Complaints are usually registered with the school board with suggestions for reprimand.

Community Relationships

As the public school takes on more and more the characteristics of a community school, the teacher's effectiveness is increased as his stature as a citizen of the community is enhanced. Teachers generally do take an active part in community affairs, especially those teachers who reside in the community. Often they are called upon to assume leadership in such activities as community chest campaigns, Red Cross, YMCA, and various religious activities. Public forums are likely avenues of participation. The teacher is expected to contribute to these activities with his leadership and participation, as well as his substance. The degree of participation may depend on (1) teacher interest and personality, (2) scarcity of other community leaders or participants, (3) pressure of influential community groups, and (4) availability.

The General Picture

The feeling seems to prevail that the alleged restrictions on freedom of teaching are less favorable to the teacher than the facts indicate. There is a shifting of emphasis as to restrictions from social and personal to political and religious. On the other hand, the teacher's position as to freedom in teaching is being strengthened due to tenure, a better economic position, protection of professional associations, greater effectiveness, and personal courage. As teachers themselves mature professionally and personally, they inspire thereby a greater confidence and are likely to weather opposition when issues arise affecting their freedom. For example, the effectiveness of a loyal, well-adjusted, and competent teacher is not necessarily improved because he is required to take a loyalty oath. As teacher competency improves, issues concerning freedom in teaching tend to diminish both in number and intensity. Teachers are entitled to live their own personal lives. Teachers assume greater stature as citizens as they exercise diligently their rights as citizens, setting a proper example thereby. Much can be done by the profession to encourage the public to respect the teacher's integrity and his liberty as an individual and as a citizen in all aspects of his civic and personal life. As teaching rises in public esteem, many of these issues and problems will tend to disappear.

ACCEPTED LIMITATIONS ON FREEDOM IN TEACHING

Much of our discussion thus far has been concerned with controversial issues in freedom of teachers and teaching. There is general agreement that there are certain limitations on freedom of teaching. These might serve as guides for teachers to follow.

1. Freedom by its very nature imposes limitations on every citizen. In protecting one's individual liberties, one must protect thereby the liberties of others, guaranteeing to them the same advantages which one seeks for himself.
2. Recognition of authority, wherever and however imposed, must always be recognized. There is no real progress excepting in the orderly progress of all men. As a part of the democratic process, the teacher may enjoy it and seek to improve it, assuming his right of free speech and enterprise to do so, taking responsibility for his actions.
3. Freedom in teaching demands competency in the teacher so that his professional status is accepted and his utterances and actions respected. Thus he radiates confidence as a teacher which in turn extends to his profession. A lack of confidence in him reflects on his colleagues as well as himself.
4. The maturity (immaturity) of the learner is a primary consideration in freedom of teaching. Perhaps the key word is *readiness*, which may apply to the teacher as well as the learner.
5. Freedom of teaching involves clear insights and courage. Upon the teacher rests a responsibility to prepare the learners for citizenship. If conditions not conducive to good citizenship prevail, the teacher is blamable, if knowing them to exist he does not speak out with courage and conviction against them, basing his teachings on proper evidence and tested truths. Great care should be taken lest hypocrisy be the direct outcome of the use of coercive methods.
6. The type of the school affects the problem of freedom of teaching. The private-school teacher is, to a degree, subject to the views and stipulations of the institution in which he teaches. The public-school teacher serves in an institution supported by public funds in which the taxpayer has an undisputed equity. However, any restrictions imposed by taxpayers or their representatives should not infringe upon the primary purposes for which the public school exists.
7. Timing is of utmost significance in freedom of teaching. There may be a time to speak and a time to keep silent. Only good sense can determine when and how.

8. Freedom of teaching is directly related to certain subjects within the curriculum itself. For example, the social studies offer many opportunities for the presentation of controversial subjects in politics, economics, and religion. Difficulties may be encountered in the field of science, as in teaching of biology, sex education, and evolution. Even so seemingly harmless a subject as agriculture may embroil a teacher who seeks to improve agricultural methods and conditions contrary to long-established tradition and practice.
9. Freedom of teaching should not be confused with a teacher's individual rights as a citizen. Personal beliefs, even if supported by facts, should not extend to imposing those beliefs on others. All sides of a proposition should be presented with full discussion and without prejudice. Nor should freedom of teaching be confused with indoctrination and propaganda. There is quite a difference.
10. Diverse groups within a community representing social, religious, political and other differences are likely to bring about many controversial problems affecting freedom of teaching. While truth should prevail in teaching at all times, care should be taken not to wound unduly the sensibilities of others.
11. Freedom of teaching is likely to be affected by the teacher's personal conduct. There are wide differences in communities in regard to attitudes affecting smoking, drinking, gambling, and the like. A teacher's conduct outside the school may impair his effectiveness within the school through gossip, scandal charges, and other forms of unfavorable publicity.
12. A teacher's personal associations have a relationship to his freedom as a teacher. "A man is known by the company he keeps" is an adage of long standing. One is likely to be in sympathy with the views of his associates, or at least be so charged.
13. Freedom of teaching may have some relationship to a teacher's teaching methods. Many hold that freedom of teaching is largely a matter of procedure, that is, how one goes about it. If he is outspoken, uncompromising, and antisocial, the outcome is likely to bring about difficulties. Graciousness of manner, patience, impartiality, full and complete explanation, and a willingness to compromise may be far more efficacious than a biased or uncompromising insistence.

Freedom of teaching is especially likely to become the concern of two groups of teachers, perhaps a relatively small number, namely (1) those who are leaders in their profession, earnest in teaching, lovers of truth, and zealous for democracy; and (2) those

who are self-seekers, posers of truth, members of a minority group, loud-spoken in their assertions, who desire to attract attention and glory in public criticism and even persecution. The vast majority of teachers may not be too unhappy for want of freedom, as they share the views, prejudices, and ideals of the community, especially if this community nurtured them, and in which they intend to remain. Perhaps the impact of great social ideals has never aroused sufficient interest in many teachers, to understand their own potentialities and vitalize their latent powers. Some teachers, like a sleeping giant, need a spark to become really vital. Teachers by and large need a greater concern for the ends of democracy and the place of the public school in it. We need to improve the profession through better legislation, better salaries, better recognition, better teaching conditions, and better teachers.

LOYALTY OATHS

When the stresses and strains of great social conflicts arise, there is a natural inclination to repose increased trust in society's protective institutions. We turn to them when there is a declared danger, as in war or the inroads of subversive philosophies. Since the public schools bear such a heavy responsibility in building good American citizens, there has been a tendency to criticize them severely when these inroads gain momentum. Because of the gravity of the situation and the high trust imposed in education, many have queried if all teachers are wise enough to enjoy academic freedom for the ultimate good of all in such emergencies.

To this end, many states have deemed it advisable to apply tests and other restrictive legislation in order to safeguard the interests of society as a whole, to eliminate subversive teachers and teaching, and to consolidate efforts toward a strengthened democracy. These have taken the form of loyalty oaths. Their establishment has in itself become quite controversial, in that for loyal teachers the test may be unnecessary, and for one who is disloyal the ends sought may not be accomplished through this means. Many fear that the abuses of the loyalty oath far outweigh the results achieved. Even for a teacher whose loyalty and inestimable service have never been brought into question, it is felt by some that to discuss controversial issues in times of great national or international stress is highly dangerous. To do so may brand such a teacher as disloyal and sub-

versive. Tempers run high in such times of emotional stress. It is easy to seek out scapegoats and "whipping boys." Flimsy evidence may be highly magnified and distorted out of all proportion to its true significance.

Teachers' Oath Laws and Regulations

The fulfillment of an obligation through the solemn declaration of an oath is of ancient origin, recorded in Biblical history. It is an act of calling God to witness the truth of what is said or done. The President of the United States takes an oath as he enters upon his official duties, as do all officers in positions of trust. To violate that oath is a serious matter, a betrayal of public trust and confidence.

The first loyalty oaths for public-school teachers appeared about the time of the War Between the States. During the period from 1862 to 1867, seven states enacted oath laws applicable to teachers. These oaths seemed to be the direct outgrowth of strong conflicting sympathies in those states regarding the Civil War. Legislation pertaining explicitly to teacher loyalty can be grouped into two broad classifications: (1) laws prescribing loyalty oaths, and (2) statutes excluding disloyal teachers without requiring oaths.⁸

Since 1900 additional states have enacted teachers' oaths prescriptions until thirty-three states now have statutes or state board regulations requiring oath allegiance or other evidence of loyalty to the government of the United States. These laws vary widely. Many include the exact language of the required oath. In others the form of the oath is left to the discretion of local boards of education. It may be written into the contract or prescribed by the state department. Some oath laws apply only to public-school teachers; others to teachers of private schools, to normal schools, and junior colleges. More recently these have come to apply to colleges and universities. Staff members in these institutions have not taken kindly to their application on the grounds that they violate the principles of academic freedom.⁹

⁸ E. Edmund Reutter, *The School Administrator and Subversive Activities*, New York, Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951, pp. 6 ff. An authoritative presentation may be found in National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, "Teachers' Oaths and Related State Requirements," June, 1949.

⁹ As this is written, the application of oaths of loyalty to colleges and universities has become a serious issue among the faculties of these institutions. An excellent il-

Time of Taking the Oath

There are three indicated times of taking the teachers' oaths prescribed in laws and regulations: (1) as a condition for certification, either at time of issuance or renewal; (2) as a part of the employment contract; and (3) at initial local employment. In some instances local boards go beyond state prescriptions and practices and add supplemental stipulations.

Prescriptions in Oaths

The contents of state-prescribed teachers' oaths vary widely. The oath usually provides for the faithful discharge of the duties of the teacher.¹⁰ It also includes generally a pledge to support the Constitution of the United States and of the particular state. Some oaths include a pledge to inculcate loyalty and patriotism in the pupils. In Georgia and Rhode Island the teacher is forbidden to teach specific theories of government, and in six states to abstain from membership in certain organizations.

Requirements to teach patriotism and prohibition of membership in any subversive group are matters of state law, outside the teachers' oath. Some laws also authorize the dismissal of disloyal teachers, requiring proof of disloyalty, and indicating procedure.

SEDITION LAWS

The Congress of the United States and the legislatures of almost every state have enacted certain legislation which may be classified as sedition laws. Since these generally apply to public employees, public-school teachers may be included. Violations of these laws include sabotage, espionage, treason, sedition, advocating a revolution or force or violence to alter the constitutional form of the United States, and membership in or sympathy with subversive organizations.

While sedition has been defined as utterances without open violence, there is difficulty in enforcement. There has been a dis-

Illustration of this issue is the loyalty oath situation at the University of California, as a result of which thirty-nine professors in the University refused to sign the oath of affirmation required. See *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Spring, 1951, pp. 92-101. The student will find several interesting articles relating to academic freedom in higher institutions of learning in the Autumn, 1951, issue.

¹⁰ The National Education Association has pointed out that this stipulation tends to make the teacher's position one of "officer" rather than "employee."

tion to preserve the right of free speech; advocating changes in the form of government by lawful means is not sedition if in so doing it guarantees freedom of thought.

General sedition laws include a prohibition against membership in any organization advocating subversive political theories. This evidence of sympathetic association unfits the teacher for efficient service. Congressional action has listed such organizations as have been declared to be subversive and hence objectionable.

TEACHING OF CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECTS

A controversial subject is usually defined as one in which the opinions of fairly competent persons differ, being held with some determination, even vehemence. Great issues have divided nations and peoples, leading to divisions, bloodshed, wars, and disunion. Broad discussion of such issues and subjects may be made under restraint and in accordance with democratic procedure and lead to compromise and resolution. The difficulty lies in adhering to a course of action because of previous teachings, group membership, or unwillingness to accept the evidence for another's point of view — perhaps a certain self-righteousness arises to becloud the issue and prevent the logical outcome.

The first task of the school is to limit discussion of controversial issues to demonstrable truth, examining all claims, customs, and notions. Behind the presentation of demonstrable truth is the competence of the teacher who presents it. Thus knowledges and values demonstrated by science or through experience should be presented in such a way that the evidence is clear and the logic sound. Full and complete discussion becomes a learning process in which acceptable teaching methods are used. Perhaps the solution is not within the knowledge and abilities of the immediate group and should be referred to experts. Such experts must be assumed to be impartial, having arrived at their conclusions scientifically without emotion or persuasion. It is entirely possible that, without the evidence of science, opinion will prevail, but only until further evidence is obtainable. Occasionally there may be an appeal to authority, in which some decision is advisable because of its urgency or expediency. The discussion of controversial subjects should be faced with courage and the conclusions reached be acceptable. Thus the method may be more significant than the outcome. The follow-

ing factors should be taken into consideration: (1) pupils' background and maturity, (2) pupils' interests, (3) teachers' ability and experience, (4) availability of facts, and (5) climate of opinion in school and community.

POLICIES OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Rights of Americans as Citizens

What may be termed as civil liberties is the heritage of all Americans. These may be identified as the right to writ of habeas corpus, to live under republican form of government, to keep and bear arms, to be secure in one's person, homes, and possessions, to speedy and impartial trial, to privacy, and not to be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. In addition to these, others may be found among the amendments to the federal Constitution, namely freedom of religion, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assemblage, and right of petition. Further rights emerge from time to time in interpretations of the Constitution and the laws. Thus where one is accused and stands upon his constitutional rights as a citizen, there is reason to examine the justice of his stand.

National Education Association

The National Education Association, through its bylaws and pronouncements, has endeavored to maintain the integrity and loyalty of its members and deny admittance to membership to those who are Communists or members of other subversive groups. However, the association has warned against requiring special oaths for teachers, detailed curriculum prescriptions, and establishing uniform tests or criteria of loyalty, which impair the vigor of local school authorities and possibly do harm to an important safeguard of freedom in education.¹¹

American Federation of Teachers

In similar manner the American Federation of Teachers excludes "communists and other proponents of authoritarianism" from its membership. They declare that students have the right to learn in

¹¹ Statement of Educational Policies Commission, October 8, 1949.

an atmosphere of freedom and impartiality. They have declared opposition to loyalty oaths for teachers.

State Educational Associations

Some eleven state education associations have officially adopted resolutions against "subversive" teachers. As pointed out previously, most states require loyalty oaths for teachers. State associations vary widely in their reactions to loyalty oaths. It should be pointed out that state associations as a group have urged their members by resolution to dedicate themselves to the cause of democracy in general and the public schools in particular. Such an approach has a deeper significance than the mere fact that an oath is required.

American Association of University Professors

Since academic freedom has been an issue in higher education for a much longer period of time, its discussion has had an important influence on freedom of teaching and resulting controls in public and private schools. The American Association of University Professors has insisted time and again that in higher education the common good depends upon the free search for truth and its free exposition. To this end academic freedom is essential and must be applied to both teaching and research. Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth.¹²

Many other organizations have indicated statements in regard to academic freedom and loyalty oaths. There is wide variation in policy and attitude concerning the feasibility and administration of loyalty oaths. Each person eligible for appointment should be thoroughly investigated for fitness before selection. However, when selected he should be guaranteed academic freedom to teach truth and engage in research without fear or intimidation. Given this prerogative he must assume the responsibility of his utterances and activities within his rights as a teacher and a citizen, and in accordance with the democratic principle and the preservation of those precious liberties guaranteed by it.

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

Far more attention has been given in literature and in practice to the philosophical, social, and legislative than to the administra-

¹² American Association of University Professors, "1940 Statement of Principles of Academic Freedom and Tenure."

tive aspects of the problems involved in freedom in teaching. When they do arise and require administrative decisions, they present difficult situations for the educational leader. They should be approached with caution and misgiving, because of the gravity of the situation, the likelihood of injustice, and emotional considerations involved.

State Policy and Procedure

Where there is a state law or regulation on the state level, the procedure in taking and filing statutory loyalty oaths is usually determined by state education departments. The form of the oath may be prescribed by law or a delegated state agency. State regulations may be set up which include listing of subversive organizations, submission of reports, violations, procedures for conducting hearings, appeals, and other procedures and information to guide local authorities.

Judicial Decisions

While the constitutionality of the loyalty oath requirements for teachers seems generally accepted, a few cases involving teacher loyalty have come before courts of record. Cases have come before state department agencies other than the courts.¹³ Issues in these cases have been concerned with (1) nature of unprofessional conduct as indicated in the law, (2) authority of the board, (3) validity of the oath, (4) definitions of disloyalty and disrespect to the government, (5) nature of utterances regarding seditions, and (6) membership in the Communist Party or other subversive organization. The courts have held that the state has the right to demand loyalty of its teachers to the American form of government. However there is still some question as to the steps to be taken to assure loyalty. There is still some question as to the bounds of a loyalty oath, and strict definitions of the term *subversive*. Membership in the Communist Party or other organization declared to be subversive is sufficient evidence of violation of oath and may result in dismissal.

Local Policy and Procedures

State policy, procedures, and judicial decisions become, in large part, determining factors in the local administration of problems

¹³ For a list of these, see Reutter, *op. cit.*, chap. 5.

growing out of the freedom of the teacher. Many school boards become quite sensitive and proceed to set up additional policies and procedures. They may include (1) the form of the oath or its extension, (2) loyalty checks, (3) manner of reporting violations, (4) trials, and (5) suspensions for violation, or other disciplinary measures. While frequent incidents concerning teacher disloyalty and irregularities concerning teacher conduct have been reported, only a relatively small number of cases have resulted in actual dismissal.

Much depends on the administrative attitudes and approach in maintaining the freedom of teaching. If the administrator believes wholeheartedly in the application of democratic principles in his school system, he will strive to maintain its reflection in every function he performs. Ordinarily the members of the board of education will share his views and follow his leadership. The educational leader should understand his community and meet issues squarely as they arise. Teachers respond to good leadership and ordinarily seek to maintain sound democratic procedures and good practice under such leadership. Good democratic school administration encourages teachers to discuss issues and problems openly in accordance with acceptable group techniques. A school which exemplifies the spirit of democracy will radiate this spirit among the staff, the pupils, and the community. Freedom of teaching then becomes a necessary accompaniment to the process.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of at least ten outstanding persons in history who became martyrs for freedom of thought and action. What were their contributions to society? To what extent was freedom necessary to their achievement?
2. Find several definitions of academic freedom and compare them with those in the chapter. Is there a distinction between academic freedom and freedom of teaching?
3. To what extent has the success of the public school been due to freedom of teaching? Illustrate.
4. Study a particular community in a way to identify the limitations on freedom of teaching. Indicate examples and evaluate your findings.
5. Compare several loyalty oaths. What are their chief characteristics?
6. Take a position for or against loyalty oaths for teachers. To what extent do loyalty oaths infringe on good teaching?

Teacher Tenure and Termination of Service

DESIRE for security in one form or another has become a characteristic aspect of the American way of life. This is reflected in the great strides of the teaching profession in gaining recognition through teacher tenure. It is natural for the teacher who has attained a professional status through years of effort to desire security from the hazards which threaten his position. Group dismissals of teachers for trivial reasons in a desire to eliminate a few persons are a matter of common knowledge. Many school boards, loath to surrender control over the staff, have brought about an unhealthy situation which has affected the status of the teaching profession. In self-protection teachers have strengthened their professional positions and aligned themselves with pressure organizations.

This chapter presents the development of teacher tenure and the problems which arise out of it. It discusses teacher turnover in relation to teacher tenure, the movement to secure greater professional security, purposes of tenure, and the different types of teacher tenure. The problems associated with its administration are included, such as the probationary teacher, authority of the board and the superintendents, terms of employment, and regular and supplementary contracts.

Termination of service (dismissal) is presented from several points of view, including types of tenure, probationary teachers, term contract teachers, and tenure teachers. Procedures with reference to dismissal are outlined such as preferring charges, notices, hearings, evidence, and appeals. The chapter closes with a discussion of

the attitudes and issues of teacher tenure and the relationship of educational leadership to its successful administration.

EARLY ATTITUDES TOWARD THE TEACHER IN HIS POSITION

Prevailing Attitudes

Historically, the tenure of teachers in American public schools has been of relatively brief duration. Not only did the teacher's total experience cover a brief period of time, but his services in any one community were also relatively brief. Teachers came and went and the turnover was high. No one seemed to bother very much about the matter, since education was not particularly of great consequence to many folk, and teachers generally did not help the matter by maintaining outstanding competency and professional dignity. Teaching had not yet become a great profession.

Exceptional Teachers

Of course there were notable exceptions. There was Ezekiel Cheever, a teacher who taught continuously in Boston for thirty-eight of his seventy years of teaching. We read of such schoolmasters as William Elphinstone, Evert Pietersen, and Christopher Dock, whose lengthy meritorious services survived their day and generation. But many taught awhile, moved about from position to position, and eventually found their way into the ministry, law, or other lines of endeavor. The pay was inadequate, insufficient to induce a young man to raise a family. Young women were soon lost to the profession through marriage. The school term was short, the communities critical, and conditions generally unattractive.

A New Interest in Education

The awakening of interest in the public schools was accompanied by a growing interest in the teachers who taught them. Historians have pointed out the significance of this movement. The establishment of state-supported and state-controlled schools necessitated some means of training teachers for them. The influence of such men as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard did much to advance public interest in education. With free schools, public support, compulsory education, lengthened school terms, the emerging high school, and better teachers with better salaries, interest in public education became nation-wide. All of these were factors in a new respect for teaching and a demand for better teachers.

TEACHER TURNOVER*Meaning*

The first approach to the study of teacher tenure is in an understanding of the loss and subsequent replacement of teachers during a stated period of time. This is known as teacher turnover. A low rate of turnover indicates stability of the personnel and results in a certain feeling of security. A high rate of turnover is conducive to a feeling of insecurity among teachers. Where the turnover is considered high, it tends to impair professional morale and contributes generally to unsatisfactory school conditions. Nor is it possible for the children to progress satisfactorily when their teachers come and go in a procession. Teachers are likely to shun appointments to positions where the rate of turnover is high and the risks of security hazardous.

While some changes in the teaching personnel are always desirable and unavoidable, it is difficult to state what constitutes a satisfactory rate of teacher turnover in a school system. One may view with concern a school system where, year after year, a third or more of the teachers are changed. This means that one-third of the children face a new teacher each year, many of whom are occupying the position for the first time. It may mean that some of these children face a new teacher each year, or every other year. Turnover may vary by grades in the elementary school, and by subjects in the high school, depending on supply and demand and local conditions. Rural-school children generally suffer more than urban children, upper-grade children more than children of the lower grades. More favored school systems with a lowered turnover are the larger cities who provide better salaries and offer greater security through better inducements. Wealthier school districts tend to attract teachers from school districts less favored financially. Teachers tend to migrate from school systems where the salaries are low, teaching conditions less favorable, and the outlook less desirable.

Causes of Turnover

In summarizing causes of turnover among teachers, some classifications of causes help in understanding the problems and their relationship to professional security. 1. A teacher may withdraw

voluntarily from a position through resignation or request. 2. The employing authority may refuse to re-elect a teacher due to a variety of causes including neglect of duty, inefficiency, and reduction of staff. 3. Professional reasons may account for turnover such as inability to control pupils, deficiencies in education or certification, lack of cooperation, and unsatisfactory service in general. 4. Personal reasons may be a contributory factor, such as ill health, marriage, and family problems. 5. Voluntary and involuntary retirement are becoming increasingly significant. 6. Economic factors have been an important element in turnover. 7. Social causes include social maladjustment and community dissatisfaction in general. 8. Resignation to accept another position may be explained by one or more of several causes. 9. Politics has been a causal factor of considerable significance in many communities. 10. Military service or leave of absences may be a contributory cause, since many such teachers do not return to teaching. Causes of turnover may be single or multiple—that is, there may be a combination of factors causing high turnover. There are many extenuating circumstances associated with it.

Amount of Turnover Expected

It is commonly agreed that a certain amount of teacher turnover in any school system is desirable, and should be expected both by the employing authority and by the teachers. It is desirable similarly that some teachers should change positions occasionally. One can expect some turnover from dismissals, since some teachers are likely to be misfits and the good of the profession demands their elimination. This is all the more important as salaries increase and higher competencies are demanded. Consolidation of schools, better facilities, better salaries, and greater educational opportunities tend to increase the migration of teachers to larger and more favored communities. While state teacher tenure laws apply to all teachers, employing authorities in smaller and less favored school systems still have the greater problem in securing and retaining good teachers. A distinction should be made between those who change from one position to another even within the school system, and those who withdraw completely from the profession. Some may withdraw for a time, as during maternity and early child care; others may resign to teach nearer home as the opportunity occurs.

Reduction in Turnover

Stability in teaching as in other professions is desirable, since it is hardly possible to develop teaching on a professional basis with a constantly shifting personnel. The average teaching experience scarcely exceeds ten years. Young, enthusiastic well-prepared teachers should be retained in the teaching profession as long as they are competent.

In reducing turnover, attention should be given to the causes affecting the turnover. The following are suggested approaches: (1) bring about a better adjustment among all teachers especially those new to their positions; (2) improve the conditions of service which might make for dissatisfaction; (3) provide better supervision especially where the teaching situation is abnormal or unusual; (4) bring about more desirable economic conditions, such as improved salaries; (5) provide leaves of absence in order to assist in the correction of some personal or professional problem as ill health; (6) eliminate bad practices on the part of the employing authority such as favoritism or politics; and (7) professionalize teaching in general through cooperation of employing authorities, staff, and the community in general.

MOVEMENT TO OBTAIN GREATER PROFESSIONAL SECURITY

The employing authority in the past has generally maintained control over the employment of teachers. The prevailing practice has been to employ them on a yearly contractual basis. "Hiring and firing" teachers has been an annual custom. It easily provides the opportunity to make room for a needy relative and thus eliminate an unwanted teacher. Teachers themselves did not always "play fair" and were often responsible for many evils.

Influence of Civil Service and Teacher Organizations

The beginnings of the movement to secure teacher tenure may be found in the civil service program for public employees which dates from 1883. The extension of these principles and procedures to other types of public service has undoubtedly influenced the development of teacher tenure. Early state laws to improve the tenure of public school teachers in certain states have followed rather

closely the enactments of civil service laws for civil employees.¹ As early as 1885, the National Education Association recognized the need for emphasis on teacher tenure as a "civil service reform." In fact, it is to the National Education Association that we must look as the champion of teacher tenure. Through its resolutions, committees, reports, exhaustive studies, and support of tenure legislation, this Association has without doubt been influential in encouraging legislation of various types designed to provide greater security for all teachers.² State teachers' associations have taken an active part in support of tenure legislation. These associations through their committees, reports, and studies brought to light conditions within their states, compared them with more favorable conditions in other states, and supported legislation favorable to teacher tenure. Much was done in exposing abuses resulting from excessive turnover and unjustifiable dismissals. Attention was vividly called to the plight of children who were affected by wholesale dismissals of teachers and unsatisfactory conditions. All associations emphasized professional security in the interest of the schools and the children to be essential to the advancement of the teaching profession.

American Federation of Teachers

The American Federation of Teachers has constantly supported desirable legislation for teachers and has taken an active part in campaigns of this nature. They have emphasized as outcomes (1) security, (2) increased teacher competency, and (3) beneficial effects of teaching of academic freedom. Unfortunately, the aggressive attitude of the Federation in comparison with that of the other professional organizations aroused opposition in some quarters, raising many questions as to the nature of teacher tenure legislation and its ultimate effects on teaching itself, especially where incompetent teachers are retained thereby. The fact is that the benefits of teacher tenure are the result of many efforts and influences and cannot be ascribed to any single group.

¹ Cecil W. Scott, *Indefinite Teacher Tenure*, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contribution to Education no. 613, 1934, pp. 10-13.

² The activities of the National Education Association and its committees are summarized in the pamphlet *Teacher Tenure: Analysis and Appraisal*, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association, 1942.

PURPOSES OF TEACHER TENURE

The professional nature of teaching necessitates sufficient protection to those engaged in it to carry on their activities as teachers and fulfill the objectives of education. Professional security through tenure is essential to this objective. At the same time teachers have certain responsibilities and rights as teachers because they have met the requirements of the position and are engaged in an enterprise which has for its purpose the educational interests of childhood.

Purposes

To this end the purposes of teacher tenure should be clearly kept in mind. These purposes are summarized by the National Education Association as follows: (1) to maintain and improve the educational opportunities of children and youth; (2) to build in the teacher that confidence and freedom which come with a sense of stability and security as a citizen in a free republic; (3) to protect teachers in preparing children and youth for loyal effective participation in a democratically controlled society of free men cooperating for the common welfare; (4) to enrich community life by giving permanence and continuity to the service of the teacher; (5) to encourage boards of education to place the welfare of children above the selfish interests of those political or economic groups which would seek to dominate the schools; (6) to guarantee employment conditions, providing a sense of security which will encourage teachers to attain the highest standards of professional competence; (7) to encourage the most promising young men and women to prepare for teaching as a life work and not as a steppingstone; (8) to set up definite orderly procedures by which incompetent, unsatisfactory teachers may be dismissed; (9) to protect competent, satisfactory teachers from unjust dismissal; and (10) to protect teachers in the exercise of their rights and duties as American citizens.³

This is a comprehensive statement of the purposes of teacher tenure. As its principles are realized, teacher tenure will undoubtedly raise the status of teaching and contribute unmeasurably to the cause of education.

³ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *Teacher Tenure: Analysis and Appraisal*, 1947, pp. 6-7.

TYPES OF TEACHER TENURE

The Statutes

The statutes of the several states place the duty of employing teachers for the public school in the board of school directors. Teachers so employed must meet all the state requirements for the position such as age and certification and such additional qualifications as the local employing authority may see fit to apply, provided they are not inconsistent with state laws and regulations. Following such employment, an agreement or contract is entered into in regard to the nature and conditions of such employment. These conditions may be found both within the state statutes and in local regulations. There are great variations among the states as to the nature and administration of statutes pertaining to teacher employment. Employment conditions in general for teachers fall into five classes which will be discussed in order.

No Legislation on the Contract Period

In a few states and Alaska, there are no state statutes regarding the employment of public-school teachers. Consequently, local school boards determine the manner of employment and other regulations as to tenure. There may however be stipulations as to the form of the contracts such as requiring them to be in writing, and as to dismissal. Local custom prevails with wide variations within the same state. Teachers in these states are usually elected annually.

Annual Election

Historically the election of teachers on annual (term) contracts has been the prevailing practice. This practice has been rapidly disappearing until only two states require the employment of teachers on annual contracts (except as noted above). This power resides in the board of school directors with certain conditions as to form of contract, in writing, dismissal, and appeals.

Long-Term Contracts

The uncertainty of the annual contractual status of teachers has resulted in some states permitting contracts with teachers for a period longer than one year. Usually there is a limit to the length of

the contract not to exceed a number of years, such as three. The general law of contracts protects the teacher against unfair dismissal before the end of the contract period, unless the dismissal is provided for by law and proper procedure is followed. The long-term contract has become an intermediate step in the continuing contract.

The Continuing Contract

Annual contract plans of teacher employment for longer terms have not prevented dismissal of teachers at the termination of the contract. Many teachers have had to endure a period of uncertainty concerning re-election until it was often too late in the year to find a suitable position elsewhere. To improve this situation the continuing contract plan has gained favor and has been enacted into law in several states. Under this plan the contract continues in force year after year unless notice is given either by the board or the teacher. Notice to terminate the contract must be given in writing a certain period of time before the end of the term.

While there is some advantage in the continuing contract for the large body of teachers who have reasonable assurance of continued employment, it in reality offers little protection over the annual contract plan. Where the continuing contract requires charges and a hearing upon dismissal at the end of the year, there is considerable progress evident toward permanent tenure. The continuing contract plan has been accepted by teachers in those states where it has not been possible to secure permanent tenure by legislative action.

Permanent Tenure

Considerable progress has been made through state legislation in securing permanent tenure for teachers. These laws apply statewide in some thirteen states and to particular cities or counties in other states. Some states have a form of local option permitting local districts to determine the manner of teacher employment. Differences may also exist within the same state as to size of district, the probationary requirement, and types of position covered. All tenure laws include principals, supervisors, and others in the professional staff, and in many instances administrators as well.

A probationary period is generally required before a teacher may

acquire tenure status. This is fixed at a specific period of time, three years being most common. The probationary period is intended to apply only to inexperienced teachers; exceptions being made for teachers of experience. There are many variations as to the nature of the probationary period and the transition to permanent tenure. Observations of the particular teacher are made with ratings and due notices.

At the end of the probationary period, tenure status is acquired either automatically or by election. If retained after probation, the teacher may be said to have acquired tenure status. Proper certification is required together with additional preparation in some instances. Once attaining tenure status, a teacher may continue in his position year after year, subject only to such laws and regulations as govern all teachers. He may be dismissed only for cause as specified by law and in accordance with legal provisions and procedures. He is entitled to the regular advances as provided by the salary schedule, protection from demotion, unjustifiable transfer, and reduction in salary. He may not be compelled to remain in service against his will and may resign at stated times by giving due notice.

ADMINISTRATION OF TEACHER TENURE

Good personnel management requires that proper attention be given to the security of the employees and providing those conditions necessary for satisfactory services and happiness in their work. In education this is primarily the responsibility of the administrator. To this end he must work closely with the board of education on the one hand in order to administer the adopted policies, and with the teachers on the other, both individually and with the organizations they represent on local, state, and national levels. These organizations may exert important influences in the administrative process.

Legal Framework

The administrator should be thoroughly familiar with the statutory provisions on the types of tenure provided for within the state. These statutes may apply state-wide or to specific districts or positions. It is important to know interpretations of teacher tenure and

much more logical, that tenure status should be acquired through the recognition of reappointment and the tenure contract duly agreed to. The teacher may now be said to have attained permanent contractual status and may not be dismissed or demoted except for cause. In this manner, tenure status assumes a certain dignity with the legality of the procedure fully observed.

Supplementary Contracts

The administration of teacher tenure requires a proper understanding of the teacher's contractual status. In its administration both (1) the form of the contract if prescribed should be used, and (2) other legal stipulations observed as to the status of the teacher as well as principles of common law which may pertain to contracts.⁵

It is becoming current practice among boards of education to enter into supplementary contracts with teachers and other employees in order to provide for "extra duties" and additional compensation. Such duties usually involve such activities as athletics, dramatics, and school publications. For example a teacher may be given a supplementary contract to coach football for a stated additional amount for one year. The supplementary contract may not be renewed as in case of an unsuccessful season or for other causes, in which the tenure status of the teacher is unaffected. Many school systems have adopted elaborate schedules of "extra pay for extra duties," mostly on the secondary level. While some questions have been raised as to the legality of these contracts, the whole system is much more indefensible in that it violates the principle of an integrated educational program and places an overemphasis on "extracurricular activities." It occasions much dissatisfaction among teachers. Good personnel administration requires a thorough understanding of an integrated educational program with a proper allocation of responsibilities for its achievement among the several members of the staff as they may be qualified for and adapted for them. The trend is quite definitely toward the inclusion of all activities within the educational program.

⁵ For a more complete discussion of contracts of employment for teachers, see Madaline K. Remmlein, *School Law*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950, chaps. 3, 4.

Assignment and Transfer

At this point, it is well to re-emphasize the significance of assignment and transfer as they relate to teacher tenure. Teachers should be assigned in accordance with their preparation, certification status, and peculiar fitness, with the desires of all concerned reasonably satisfied in the assignment. No teacher should be assigned to any school without the full consent of the principal. Each new teacher, including tenure teachers, should undergo a period of orientation in a new assignment. Assignments should be made in accordance with an approval policy practised with fairness. Anecdotal records should always be kept of all teachers, which may be used where necessary in assignment and transfer.

Reassignment may involve transfer to another position; it may include promotion and demotion. Transfer may be made to another school, another grade, or reassignment of duties. As far as possible such reassignment should be made with the consent of the teacher. Where promotion involves a better position and more salary, it should be made in accordance with established policy, so that dissatisfaction among other teachers can be avoided. Questions may arise as to the relative fitness of teachers within the system for "key positions," as compared with choices from outside the system. While capable persons from within the system should receive recognition, other things being equal, it is always better to secure the best person for the position as the major consideration is the welfare of the boys and girls.

Teacher tenure denotes a certain fixity of position with opportunity for promotion both in position as well as salary, and possibly reassignment under certain conditions. However, this does not extend to demotion either in position or salary, without the consent of the teacher. If such consent is not received, the procedure may be the same as in dismissal. The statutes themselves may clarify the nature of demotion; in their silence local rules and regulations or decisions of the courts or quasi-judicial bodies may apply. Otherwise strict procedures should be followed. Perplexing questions sometimes arise as to what constitutes demotion, as from a senior high school to a junior high school, or from an upper grade to a lower grade. Where agreement cannot be reached in such instances,

clarification may be necessary through judicial and quasi-judicial procedure.

Separation from Service

Teachers under tenure may separate from the service temporarily and permanently. They may separate temporarily through illness, leave of absence as provided for by law as for study and travel, service in the armed forces, and as an exchange teacher in other school systems or abroad. It is assumed that the tenure as well as the retirement status of the teacher is thereby unaffected. Teachers may separate from service permanently through resignation, voluntary or involuntary retirement, contractual agreement as in case of marriage, decline in enrollment, and death. Procedure is usually indicated by statute or local regulations, excepting death which automatically terminates a tenure contract. Such procedure where indicated should be fully adhered to.

TERMINATION OF SERVICE (DISMISSAL)

The discussion so far has been concerned with the orderly administration of the teacher's status as he advances through the probationary period, assumes tenure status, and desires voluntarily to separate from service. Consideration will now be given to the involuntary termination of the teacher's service. This is generally termed dismissal.

The termination of the service of the teacher by involuntary means other than retirement depends first upon the type of tenure provided by the statute. The procedure differs (1) in accordance with the statutes, (2) by common law and the courts, and (3) by rules and regulations of the board.

Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education

Local boards of education have expressed or implied powers to adopt and enforce reasonable rules and regulations for the proper management of the schools. Rules must be reasonable and not arbitrary and bear a definite relationship to the purpose intended. Teachers are expected to conform to such rules. Failure on their part to observe these rules is one form of insubordination, for which they may be dismissed under the common law, as well as under the statutes. Where reasonableness or unreasonableness are brought

into question, factual evidence must be presented requiring final disposition by the courts. The courts generally will not inquire into the wisdom of a rule or interfere with the board in its enforcement.

Dismissal of Teachers Under Term Contracts

A term contract provides for the employment of the teacher for a designated period of time. This is stated in the contract. Such a term is usually for one year, although it may be for a longer period of time. During the contractual period, the principles of contract law apply as well as the terms of the contract. It automatically expires at the end of the term, unless otherwise provided for. Unless renewal is agreed to there is no redress for the teacher, providing the terms of the contract have been adhered to. Within the duration of the contract the teacher may not be dismissed excepting for cause or breach of contract, whereby the teacher can sue, as for salary, or the board can prefer charges.

Dismissal of Probationary Teachers

Since a period of probation is an essential characteristic of tenure laws, the dismissal of a teacher during this period is of considerable importance. Where a contract is in effect, the laws of contract may apply. Failure to renew the contract at the end of the probation may be tantamount to dismissal. In the absence of a contract, dismissal may be made at any time, unless there is evidence of an oral agreement. Dismissal may be provided at the end of a probationary period. Tenure is not ordinarily acquired automatically at the end of the probationary period. It depends upon the teacher's reappointment and his acceptance of a tenure contract. Statutes in several instances make specific provision for the manner of dismissal of probationary teachers, such as due notice, discretion of the board, unsatisfactory rating, and upon recommendation of the superintendent.⁶

Dismissal of Tenure Teachers

The dismissal of teachers under tenure is determined by statute, rather than the principle of contract law. The assumption is that, having satisfactorily completed the prescribed probationary period,

⁶ For a list of these, see Commission on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *Teacher Tenure Manual, op. cit.*, pp. 30-31.

the teacher has demonstrated competency and assumes tenure, being removable only for cause. Tenure laws differ in regard to the causes of dismissal; some are specific as to causes, others silent. Where the law is silent, school boards may determine their own procedure and are supported by the courts if, in their opinion, wise use has been made of their discretion. Where the causes are indicated, teachers may be dismissed only for causes so listed. Judicial interpretation may be necessary in order to ascertain if the circumstances of a particular instance constitute a specified cause for dismissal. Causes generally enumerated include incompetency, inability, neglect of duty, intemperance, physical or mental incapacity, conviction of a felony, cruelty, and occasionally insubordination and subversive tendencies. Where tenure is contractual by nature, the outcome of the dismissal is essentially the termination of the contract. Difficulties always arise as to what constitutes evidence of a specific cause, as incompetency or intemperance. These may be determined by professional judgment supported by anecdotal records and may finally require judicial interpretation and decision.

Procedure

The statute generally contains specific steps to be followed in dismissal cases. Procedure may also be determined by local policy otherwise specific. Such procedure includes an enumeration of the persons who bring the charges, the nature of the charges, how they shall be presented to the board, notices to be sent, what they shall contain, when and how the hearing is to be held, and form of action to be taken. Since defects in procedure may nullify an action or cause injustice, it is essential that it be followed carefully. Examples of defective procedure might include irregularities as to form and transmission of the notice, or reasons accompanying it.

Hearings

The hearing is an essential aspect of tenure proceedings in most tenure laws. Its form may be prescribed. Where teachers may request it, it must be held within a prescribed time. Evidence must be presented and supported with records in line with the causes indicated. Hearings may be public or private with the teacher represented by counsel if he so desires. Witnesses may be called by subpoena if necessary. The admissibility of evidence is within the discre-

tion of the board members, since they act in a judicial capacity. It is assumed that hearings before a board in its official capacity are impartial and without prejudice. Unfairness in any particular may be a sufficient reason for appeal. Decisions should follow within a prescribed time with the notice of any action taken submitted to the teacher and properly recorded.

Records

Records enter into dismissal cases at several points. Mention has been made of notices, information for which may have been taken from the records. Anecdotal records, that is, records taken of specific instances indicating time and place and other evidences of the fact in support of the charge, are highly important. They must be specific, truthful, applicable and without prejudice. A transcript of the hearing itself is necessary to preserve the testimony and proper procedure taken. Such records become the basis for appeals and may bring the whole proceedings into question for final adjudication.

Appeals

Most tenure laws provide for the appeal of a school board decision either to a judicial body as the courts, or to a quasi-judicial body as a state superintendent or a tenure commission. The procedure in such instances is indicated in the statute and must be followed accordingly. The tendency has been to place the responsibility of reviewing appeals in professional bodies because of the professional nature of the controversy and the significance of precedents. In making appeals, procedure must be followed carefully. When a decision is reached, it generally becomes final.

Appeals may be made to the courts (1) where provided for in the statute, and (2) from higher educational judicial bodies because of a desire to correct errors, obtain fairness, or for other reasons. The dismissed teacher may desire to have his tenure status clarified.⁷ Precedents play an important part in judicial decisions, following the doctrine of "*stare decisis*." Thus in considering appeals the teacher should be familiar with issues involved in similar cases and precedents already established. Appeals may be taken to the highest

⁷ For a more complete analysis of procedure on appeals of teacher dismissal cases see *Teacher Tenure Manual, op. cit.*, pp. 20-23; also appendix.

court where issues conceived are of paramount interest to all teachers.

LEGAL INTERPRETATION OF ISSUES IN TEACHER TENURE

The long road which teachers have had to travel to attain professional security through teacher tenure has been a controversial one. Numerous issues have been resolved by the courts and quasi-judicial bodies. These constitute a legal philosophy of teacher tenure and are basic to its understanding and administration. As an outcome statutes have been frequently revised and procedures modified. Interpretations have been given to specified causes, which in turn have become established precedents.

It is not possible in this chapter to indicate the full extent of the principles which now form the framework of teacher tenure philosophy. Some indication of their nature is as follows: (1) constitutionality of tenure statutes and amendments which include powers of the state to enact tenure statutes, guarantees of liberty, and power to amend (30 instances); (2) rights of the school board, which include matters of contract, appointment and election of probationary teachers, reinstatement, assignment and demotions, resignations, abolition of positions, leaves of absence, appeals and hearings, and salaries (87 instances); (3) rights of teachers under tenure, which include status, assignments, transfer, demotions, resignations and reinstatements, suspensions, dismissal, and salary issues (116 instances); and (4) rights of probationary teachers, which include contract issues, period of probation, appointment, dismissals, and salary issues (24 issues).⁸ It will be noted from this summary that the issues pertaining to teacher tenure are exceedingly complex.

ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHER TENURE

The attainment of tenure for teachers has been one of the greatest struggles in educational history. Boards of education have considered the "hiring and firing" of teachers as their own prerogative. In this they found many sympathetic adherents among school administrators. Teachers have been subject to pressures of all sorts, political and economic as well as professional. It is not strange that

⁸ William D. Mullin, *Legal Interpretations of Issues Involved in the Administration of Teacher Tenure*, University of Pittsburgh, doctor's dissertation, 1941.

the teachers' principal discontent has been centered around problems of security and its accompanying economic problems. School boards generally have strenuously opposed the efforts of professional bodies of teachers who sponsored tenure legislation and perfected procedures in dismissal cases.

Rating and Teacher Tenure

While much has been accomplished, much remains to be done. The most serious current issue in teacher tenure is continued security without regard to continued professional fitness. The determination of professional fitness (competency) through some form of rating has been strenuously opposed by teachers. They fear the power of administrative procedure which may have the effect of nullifying past tenure gains. Teachers point to such instruments as ineffective and the procedure used prejudicial to their interests, especially because of the secrecy attached and lack of confidence in the raters.

Admitting the difficulties involved in rating as a means of determining competency, the fact remains that continued competency on the part of every teacher is an essential characteristic of teacher tenure. It should become a professional matter of great concern to all teachers to maintain competency for their own group protection, and to rid the profession of incompetents. This principle of maintaining professional competency from *within* the profession has been generally accepted by all professions. The problem is to find the proper procedure to achieve this end, and until such is found, teacher tenure will have many vigorous opponents.

Difficulties

By and large teachers have profited immeasurably as a profession through teacher tenure. While causes of dismissal may be specific, difficulties in interpretation, lack of proper evidence, defects in procedure, emotional considerations largely in favor of the teacher, and prejudice have served to accentuate difficulties in securing dismissals of teachers. Many school boards and administrators are reluctant to prefer charges against incompetent teachers because of these difficulties and attendant publicity. Reversal of local board action upon appeals has not always been taken kindly and has tended to create strong opposition to the tenure principle. Teachers

themselves can do much to correct these situations from within the profession.

The problem in teacher tenure then is to maintain the professional security of the competent teacher while providing for the justifiable elimination of the unfit. Term or continuing contracts, as a forward step, still do not rid the system of unfairness and prejudice from the teacher's point of view, since the control remains within the school board and the administration. Tenure on a permanent contractual basis seems to be the proper solution, provided that (1) a satisfactory probationary period and (2) acceptable dismissal procedures can be developed. Undoubtedly the crux of the whole problem lies in these two aspects of tenure. Much will have to be done to convince boards of education as well as school administrators concerning the beneficial results of teacher tenure.

Incentives in Relation to Security

The continued professional growth of teachers is a major administrative function and should be shared by teachers individually and professionally. Motives to this end may be provided by the administration in the form of higher certificate standards, leaves of absence, conferences, and supervision. The tenure teacher sometimes assumes the attitude that since tenure provides professional security, growth in service is of little importance. When such an attitude is assumed by a large part of any teaching group, the general effect is one of indifference and even opposition to teacher growth. Such an attitude extends even to unwillingness to share in the solution of common problems, especially if additional time and effort are required.

It is obvious that professional security for teachers must be accompanied by provision for incentives to continued professional growth. Such a policy should be fully accepted by all teachers as a necessary condition to the privilege of tenure. These should be provided by the administration and the teachers themselves. Where a teacher refuses or neglects to grow professionally and accept his full share of responsibility, he should be willing to withdraw from the service.

Evading the Spirit of Teacher Tenure

Occasionally, school boards have attempted to evade the spirit of teacher tenure by such methods as transfer of teachers to undesirable

assignments, abolition of positions, unreasonable rules and regulations, advantage taken of a teacher, and lowered qualifications. Failure to provide reasonable facilities and teaching conditions have been used to embarrass teachers. Unfair rating and prejudicial statements have been employed in certain cases, especially where it seems obvious that the teacher is on the defensive. Pressures may be applied to secure resignations. Advantages are often taken of the probationary period, by dismissing teachers before they arrive at tenure status.

The teachers have not been entirely free of evasions in teacher tenure. Mention has been made of unwillingness to carry additional assignments or evading responsibilities. There are instances of individual or group opposition to school board policies or an administration program if it happens to incur their displeasure. Teachers may constantly emphasize increase in salaries without rendering better service. If it is to function wisely, the spirit of teacher tenure should be accepted and maintained by all concerned.

EFFECTIVE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND TENURE

Progress

The marked advances made by teachers in securing professional security through tenure has not generally applied to school administrators. As officers, they are elected for a term, the theory being that as the chief executive officers of the school board, they are responsible to it for the administration of policy. Some progress has been made during the past decade in tenure laws affecting the superintendent. Now that at mid-century he is mentioned in five state and four local tenure laws, there is a trend toward extending continuing contract provisions for superintendents, as in New York and New Jersey. Many superintendents prefer to be excluded from tenure status, believing that they are restricted by tenure laws. Turnover among superintendents is slightly higher than it is among classroom teachers.⁹ Since the superintendent generally does not have tenure, his leadership may suffer as a consequence. He may not be able to realize all the potentialities of his position as they affect per-

⁹ Madaline K. Remmlein, "Tenure Laws Affecting the Superintendent," *Nations Schools*, August, 1950, pp. 23-25. For the status of the superintendent, see National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency, Thirtieth Yearbook*, 1953, chap. 2 and others.

sonnel, or become effective in carrying out his policies or that of the board, because of his term contract.

Road Blocks to Effective Leadership

There are many road blocks to effective leadership of school personnel which have a relationship to teacher tenure. The school administrator is peculiarly subject to community pressures of all types, which may be economic, political, social, religious, and, in some instances, personal. The pressure to replace a teacher with a local favorite is all too common. The pressure to lower the cost of the schools by eliminating higher paid teachers or maintaining a lowered salary schedule is well known. The superintendent is directly affected by political situations, especially where boards of education are elected by popular vote on a partisan ticket. Attacks on the schools become attacks on the teachers, in which the superintendent is occasionally placed at a disadvantage. He may have inherited a poorly prepared, incompetent staff and been constantly thwarted in his attempts to improve it. Effective leadership is an essential to good schools, as are good teachers. Teacher tenure will not become effective until and unless the principle is recognized. Reasonable tenure for school administrators is a necessary accompaniment of effective leadership. The school board should exercise the greatest care in selecting a good leader and support him in his efforts to improve the schools and the teaching staff. It is the teachers' responsibility to assist in maintaining their own competency and eliminate themselves if this cannot be done. Effective cooperation spells success for effective teacher tenure.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Write a paper on early attitudes toward security for teachers. How do you account for this prevailing philosophy?
2. Make a list of outstanding educators who have made contributions to the cause of teacher tenure. Be specific.
3. Compile a list of recent studies in teacher turnover and make comparisons of factual data over a selected period of time.
4. What is the relationship between teacher turnover and teacher tenure?
5. Make a study of teacher turnover in a selected community over a period of years and indicate causes. To what extent can these be corrected?

6. Make a list of the purposes of teacher tenure from a study of the literature. To what extent are these being realized?
7. What is the prevailing type of teacher tenure in your state? Examine the statutory provisions. What suggestions do you have for its improvement?
8. Would you advocate tenure for (a) superintendents? (b) principals? (c) custodians? Defend your position.
9. Take and defend a position in regard to supplementary contracts. What is the prevailing practice in your state? Community?
10. Make a list of possible methods of separating a teacher from his position. What is the relationship of each to tenure?
11. Compare procedure in teacher dismissal under each type of tenure.
12. What contributions have the courts made to the development of teacher tenure?
13. Discuss the relationship of teacher competency to teacher tenure. What is the best measure of competency?
14. How would you set up a program of teacher improvement in-service which would include acceptable incentives defensible under teacher tenure?

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*Associations and Activities for
Teachers' Professional Improvement
and Welfare*

TEACHING as a great profession is not possible of achievement until status is attained through an adequate organization. The truth of this statement is fully realized when one contrasts the status of teaching generations ago when there was no effective organization with the contemporary situation, when organized effort is one of the principal characteristics of the profession. Teachers' organizations are found on every level, local, state, national, and more recently on the international level. Every professional interest seems to have an outlet through some form of organization. Through these organized efforts teaching is advancing to its proper place as a great profession.

This chapter traces the development of those educational organizations which pertain to teachers' professional improvement and welfare. Considerable attention is given to the National Education Association, state education associations, and the numerous local associations. Teachers' associations affiliated with labor are studied. Problems associated with such affiliations are discussed, such as why teachers unionize. The World Educational Organization, a new movement, is a recent educational phenomenon. Other organizations which have a direct or indirect influence on teaching are indicated. The chapter closes with a review of the significance of educational organizations to the cause of education in general and of teaching in particular.

DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

One must delve deep into the past in order to find the origins of organizations consisting primarily of teachers, who were concerned not only with their own welfare but the cause of education as well. As early as the fourth century an organization known as the Brethren of the Common Life is credited with being the first teachers' voluntary association. Numerous similar organizations came into existence in the Middle Ages, the forerunners both in origin and purpose of modern organizations. These were primarily religious in character and hence differed from the cosmopolitan nature of contemporary associations. The first teachers' association in the United States was the Society of Associated Teachers, organized in New York City in 1794. During the first half of the nineteenth century others appeared in our larger cities, and rapidly multiplied during the latter half of the century.

Contributions

From the standpoint of educational reform and the elevation of the teaching profession, as Elsbree¹ points out, the contributions of teachers' associations during the period 1836 to 1860 was second only to the establishment of normal schools. Perhaps, too, they were an outcome of the democratic movement so characteristic of the period. They created a favorable climate for free public schools, and advocated many educational reforms later to be translated into legislation. They were undoubtedly instrumental in stimulating support for education from lay groups as organized labor; and other groups of citizens who fought the battles for free public education.² Out of these early developments came the vigorous local teachers' associations now found in every city, as well as the state teachers' associations, both of which will be described in a later section.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Origin

The National Education Association is the direct descendant of the National Teachers' Association, organized in Philadelphia in

¹ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, The American Book Company, 1939, chap. 20.

² The student should compare the forces concerned with "the American Battle for Free State Schools" as described by Cubberley (see Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The History of Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, chap. 26).

1857 by forty-three educational leaders representing twelve state associations and the District of Columbia.³ As Fenner points out, the common people were coming to see that the public schools were the very foundation of a democracy, and that the United States could not safely rely on charity schools for the poor and private schools for the rich.⁴ Horace Mann lent his great influence to the movement in 1858, although he did not live to address the convention as the "father in our councils" the following year. Other educational groups, as school superintendents and normal school instructors, found it advantageous to merge with the National Teachers' Association, with the result that in 1906 the name of the organization was officially changed to the National Education Association.

Nature

With this change in its organization and membership, the National Education Association took on the nature of a cross section of many and varied educational interests. This change was accentuated through the inclusion of more and more teachers in the association, and a corresponding increase in democratic control. It was also accentuated by a vigorous program advancing the cause of education and meeting with courage the attacks of those who would retard or destroy the great American public school system. Added strength was gained through affiliated state educational associations and numerous local associations. Teachers through the nation were awakening to their new found professional obligations. Thus education, through the combined efforts of organizations on national, state, and local levels, presented a united front to advance its cause.⁵

Growth

Membership in the Association grew from the original 43 charter members to 9,115 in 1887. The location of the annual convention and the vigor and personality of early leaders were factors in growth in membership. After the First World War it began to grow rapidly, reaching a membership of 170,053 in 1927. Twenty years later

³ The best account of the history of the National Education Association will be found in Mildred Sanderson Fenner, *NEA History*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1945.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

⁵ The National Education Association has made marked advances since the report of the Educational Policies Commission, *A National Organization for Education*, February, 1937.

(1947) the membership had risen to 386,643, and as of May 31, 1952, to 490,968. The great growth can be attributed to (1) growing professional spirit among teachers, (2) expanded services, (3) aggressive enrollment campaigns, (4) organized action among teachers in state and local associations, and (5) a vigorous educational program in general, including efforts to reduce illiteracy, improve teacher welfare, and advance education in general.

Organization

The National Education Association of the United States⁶ is a nonprofit corporation under a special act of Congress. It is directly controlled by a board of directors who elect a board of trustees, an executive committee, officers, and such other boards, councils, and committees prescribed in the bylaws. The constitution and bylaws specify the powers, duties, terms, and other stipulations concerning the control and management of the Association. The policy making body of the Association is the representative assembly, composed of officers and delegates elected from the various affiliated state and local associations.

The Association operates through six commissions and councils, six standing committees, six joint committees, eight convention committees, and thirty departments. Affiliated with the Association are all state associations, and in addition nearly 4,500 local associations. The total membership (1952) was over 490,000, slightly more than 50 per cent of eligible state membership, about one-half of whom are classroom teachers. The Association maintains headquarters in Washington, D.C., established in 1917. This imposing structure and adjoining properties house the staff of executives and research workers who direct the activities of the Association. These operate through fourteen divisions. The framework of the National Education Association may be said to be held together through the activities of its officers and the representative assembly, its platform, policies, code of ethics, and its resolutions. The publications of the Association are many and varied, and its services widely extended.

Program and Activities

The announced purpose of the Association is to "elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to

⁶The Constitution and Bylaws will be found in *National Education Association, Proceedings*, 1952, pp. 362-379.

promote the cause of education in the United States." In order to accomplish this purpose the Association has adopted a platform of action, comprehensive in every way, and specifically adapted to (1) the child, (2) the teacher, (3) the adult, (4) organization and administration, (5) finance, (6) public relations, and (7) preservation of democracy. Resolutions are passed from time to time in order to adapt this platform to current issues and problems. While the headquarters staff and committees are responsible for the management of the Association, the educational vitality of the Association is in reality located within the departments and divisions which have been organized to promote the interests of specific groups, such as classroom teachers, elementary principals, rural education, school administrators, and science teachers. It must be remembered that the Association is so complex and its activities so varied that centers of interest are not only desirable but essential for most of its members. In this fact lies much of the strength of the Association.

To understand the Association at work one should look in upon a particular conference and activities of one of its departments or affiliated groups. Here may be gathered together persons having common interests in the solution of common problems. These problems are considered as they pertain to the larger problems and issues of education. Underlying the whole procedure is a sincere desire to fulfill the purposes of the Association and advance the cause of education in general. Through yearbooks, periodicals, research materials, correspondence, and the like contributed by many of its own members, the membership is kept fully informed of its activities. The Association assumes leadership in defending the cause of education against unjustifiable attacks. It promotes policies especially as they pertain to pioneer educational efforts. It endeavors to extend its influence and service in other areas, and collaborates with teachers' associations abroad. The Association has labored constantly to raise the social and economic status of teachers and advance teaching toward a better profession.

STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

State teachers' associations were first organized in 1845 in Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, and Rhode Island. By 1856 seventeen state associations had been organized, and by the end of the century nearly all states had their own associations. The roll call

of state associations now includes all 48 states and the District of Columbia, and Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. The total membership in state associations is over 950,000 (1952). Each association has its own constitution, bylaws, and officers, and, although affiliated with the NEA, operates independently of it.

In their earlier years state associations operated as pure democracies, all members being eligible to participate in the transaction of business. As they grew in size, it was necessary to adopt representative procedures based on delegates elected from local associations. Thus these local associations gathered strength and became vital agencies for the support and, in many instances, control of the state association. The state associations maintain central headquarters, an executive secretary, and other officers. Annual conventions are well attended. For the most part, they are policy-making bodies and serve to integrate the activities of the local association and the membership generally. Many of these policies are determined by means of an executive council, commissions, and committees, together with recommendations of the membership. Other activities of the state association include group conferences, publications, field services, research activities, teachers' welfare, membership, public relations, and professional advancement along many lines. The legislative activities of all state associations have become increasingly significant, being among the principal means by which educational conditions in general and the welfare of teachers in particular have been improved. Generally, the activities of state associations are coordinated with those of the National Education Association, with which they are closely affiliated.⁷

LOCAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

It is generally agreed that the strength of an organization lies in the face-to-face human relationships that form both the basis for immediate action in implementing state and national policies as well as in providing the strength and vision of the membership at large. Since these associations lie close to the children for which they primarily exist, they are the more likely to emphasize improvement in the teaching services and solution of problems of the pro-

⁷ *The NEA Handbook* proposes fourteen characteristics of an ideal State Association (*q.v.* 1952-1953).

fession. Thus they can become professional workshops in which are forged constructive programs designed for this purpose.

Nature

It is difficult to secure accurate information concerning the number of local educational associations in the United States. In 1952-1953 the National Education Association reported over 4400 such organizations affiliated with the NEA. In 1948, the Association identified over 2800 nonaffiliated local organizations as reported by state association secretaries.⁸ Much depends on the definition of an association and scope of its activities. This is particularly indicated in the wide variety of educational associations compiled by the U.S. Office of Education.⁹

Local teachers' associations are thus the oldest, the most numerous, and the most varied in character. They pertain to every known activity directly or indirectly associated with education, being built largely about common educational interests and activities. However, all may be said to have one common objective, that of advancing the interests of education in general and teaching in particular. The form of the organization may be that of pure democracy, or it may be a representative assembly.¹⁰ Classroom teachers predominate, and democratic procedures generally prevail. Since these are voluntary organizations, it is evident that their vitality depends upon the strength of the leadership, the pertinency of the program, and the zeal of the membership.

Purposes and Activities

The purposes of local associations may be classified as follows: (1) improving the professional services of members; (2) building *esprit de corps* of the teaching staff; (3) improving teaching conditions and economic status at local, state, and national levels; (4) rendering community and civic services; and (5) interpreting the Association and the profession.

Activities of the Association naturally grow out of these purposes

⁸ National Education Association, Research Division, "Local Education Associations at Work," *Research Bulletin*, October, 1948, p. 105.

⁹ Consult *Education Directory*, "Educational Associations," Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, 1951-1952, Part IV.

¹⁰ "Local Education Associations at Work," *op. cit.*, p. 119.

and may be grouped about the following: (1) membership, (2) social, (3) public relations, (4) program, (5) legislation, (6) teacher welfare and professional improvement, (7) economic status, and (8) interpreting the profession to its membership and the public. The association may deal with local problems as salaries, administrative relationships and participation, legal protection, discrimination, welfare, and local teaching conditions. Provision will need to be made for officers and committees, and for the necessary coordination with state and national educational associations, and other related organizations. A strong local teachers' association may be summarized as one having an appropriate plan of action for professional improvement under strong devoted leadership.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS AFFILIATED WITH LABOR

Earliest attempts of teachers to unionize are traceable to a group of Los Angeles teachers in 1889. It was not until 1902, however, that the first charter was issued by the American Federation of Labor to a group of affiliated teachers in San Antonio, Texas. During the next decade eleven such groups organized and affiliated with local groups of organized labor. In England the National Union of Teachers was formed in 1870 in order to improve economic conditions among teachers. This union was undenominational, democratic, open to all, and had no political party affiliations.

American Federation of Teachers

The strongest educational labor group in the United States is the American Federation of Teachers. It is composed of local chapters and state federations, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Earliest beginnings are traceable to a group of Chicago teachers organized in 1897, which sought to overcome the evils which had been brought about through state and municipal legislation and practices concerning the schools.

The constitution of the American Federation of Teachers is a brief document of thirteen articles. All educational workers except the superintendent of schools are eligible for membership. There are the usual officers with meetings and elections provided for, including delegates to the American Federation of Labor conventions. Its members have been concerned with improvement of economic and working conditions for teachers, the welfare of childhood, and pro-

vision for greater educational opportunity for all. Many of its members belong to the local teachers' professional organization. Factional differences in the 1930's led to a serious setback for this movement, followed by the expulsion of certain locals for communistic leanings. Membership in the American Federation of Teachers is an estimated fifty thousand (1950) in a national organization consisting of 20 state federations and 375 locals. The principal organ is the *American Teacher*.

United Public Workers of America

This organization which has jurisdiction in the field of teaching for the Congress of Industrial Organizations was formed in 1946. It maintains a national Teachers' Division which services and coordinates the work of teachers' locals. These locals emphasize the necessity of collaboration of all teachers' organizations and strive to achieve thereby unified working relations. While strikes are countenanced, every effort is made to improve conditions without resort to this method. Membership of teachers is approximately twenty thousand.

Why Teachers Unionize

With the rapid development of teachers' professional organizations and their expanding program of teacher welfare, one wonders as to the reasons for unionization among teachers. Fordyce¹¹ points out the following in answer: (1) the failure of the professional organizations to offer adequate and aggressive programs for the teachers' total welfare and protection; (2) mistreatment of teachers by the administration and board of education; and (3) outside causes pertaining to the economic and social welfare of teachers. Other causes are limitations upon academic freedom, heavy assignments, need for educational reforms, autocratic attitudes of administrators and boards of education, and political control within the schools.

Unionization of teachers has been received by the teaching profession in general with mixed feelings. It is claimed that, since teaching is a profession, affiliation with a labor union is thereby inconsistent. Paid organizers by their aggressiveness displease many

¹¹ W. G. Fordyce, "The Historical Background of American Teachers' Unions," *American School Board Journal*, May, 1946, pp. 43-44.

teachers and have aroused resentment among educators and laymen alike. Results claimed have not always been fully achieved. Procedures used in settling labor disputes such as the strike do not necessarily apply to teachers.

Advantages

Many advantages are claimed for teachers affiliating with labor. The following are significant: (1) labor affiliation makes possible a strong position on matters affecting public education; (2) labor support gives protection and security to members of the teaching profession, more so than any other organization; (3) labor has generally been a strong supporter of education over the years; (4) the improvement of the economic and social status of the worker advances the cause of education in which teachers profit thereby; (5) teachers can solve their problems better through the influence of a larger labor organization, especially when the problems are similar; (6) a union affords a better guarantee against corrupt political domination; and (7) teacher unions have accomplished many things for the profession which the professional associations have failed to accomplish.

Disadvantages

In contrast the following arguments are offered as to the reasons why affiliation of teachers with labor is not desirable: (1) the interests of teachers and labor are in no way comparable to the extent that there should be a mutual relationship; (2) affiliation with labor widens the gap between teachers and the administration, creating an unhealthy situation; (3) affiliation with labor tends to destroy the confidence of the public in teachers; (4) other professional patterns such as medicine offer teachers a better method; (5) the social obligations of teachers in a publicly controlled and supported institution as education are not enhanced by affiliation with labor; and (6) teachers must of necessity accept the leadership of labor as well as its methods, quite inconsistently with the types of professional leadership and methods associated with the profession.

Teacher Strikes

When an individual joins an organization he naturally accepts the philosophy and methods of that organization. He is aligned with

its purposes and in turn accepts the consequences of any action arising out of its activities. While collective bargaining is the principal means used to settle disputes, the strike is the principal weapon to enforce labor's demands. Hence when teachers affiliate with a labor organization they are obligated to accept these procedures, even if exception is permitted by the central body.¹² Teacher strikes have been generally accepted in England. If, for example, a teacher is dismissed without cause, the union requests that all teachers in that school resign. During the period of the strike, the union pays the salaries of teachers. No teacher is expected to accept a position in a "struck school."¹³

Issues in Teachers' Strikes

Teachers in America are sharply divided on the issue of teachers' strikes. The issues appear to be as follows:

FOR TEACHERS' STRIKES. The teachers' strike is a potent "coercion," generally recognized as a right of labor to enforce its demands. Since education teaches the American way of life involving free enterprise, the teachers themselves should have a share in it. Moreover, it may not be possible to achieve needed economic conditions without resort to it. Those who support the strike technique point to the many gains made by labor, and by teachers in a few instances, in which the strike was the principal means of enforcing its demands.

AGAINST TEACHERS' STRIKES. It is important to point out that the right to strike cannot be properly considered unless the question of collective bargaining is also reviewed. Green points out the right of collective bargaining arises out of statutory enactment, not under common law. Collective bargaining arises through employment by virtue of a contractual relationship, in which its terms can be arrived at through a meeting of minds. As governmental employees, teachers have a legislative status rather than a contractual one,¹⁴ and

¹² The American Federation of Teachers maintains a nonstrike policy, taking the position that it is an autonomous body and not subject to policies and procedures of labor in general. However, strikes of teachers have occurred, both by affiliated labor locals as well as nonunion teachers' groups. It should be pointed out that public employees generally are forbidden by state laws to strike.

¹³ W. G. Fordyce, "Teachers' Unions and Labor's Weapons," *American School Board Journal*, September, 1946, pp. 31-33.

¹⁴ For a review of court decisions involving tenure and continuing-contract laws, see Madaline K. Remmlein, *School Law*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950, chap. 4.

hence can act only as the law provides. This principle naturally bans both collective bargaining and strikes which may be called to enforce demands. This means that the tenure teacher who participates in any form of work stoppage, including strikes, boycotts, picketing, and black lists, has violated the terms of the tenure act. Boards of education thus may not enter into contracts not permitted by law or implied by it.

Teacher strikes are contrary to the public interest, since they interfere with the administration of a national institution, essential to the American way of life. Professional advancement is best secured by other means, such as codes of ethics, exchange of ideas, adequate legislation, professional solidarity, and public information based on study and research.

Legal Status of Teachers' Unions

Since teachers' unions are a comparatively new form of organization, their status has been clarified only after a series of court decisions. Garber¹⁵ has reviewed several cases worthy of notice. In the Norwalk case, the Court decided that teachers cannot engage in such concerted action as strikes and work stoppages, since they are governmental employees. Said the Court, "To say that they can strike is the equivalent of saying that they can deny the authority of government and contravene public welfare." Teachers, however, can organize as labor unions provided there is no statutory provision to forbid it. Similarly, collective bargaining is permissible in the absence of statutory legislation, provided the strike threat is absent. Arbitration is possible provided the board does not delegate its power concerning questions of policy. The board of education is empowered to administer the schools, which it cannot delegate or evade. While it may ask for advice, it must make its decisions in accordance with statutory provisions and good practice, and abide by them.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS SPONSORING BETTER SCHOOLS

One of the most hopeful indications of public support for education is the increasing number of national organizations who are devoting their time, energies, and monies to realize better schools for their

¹⁵ Lee O. Garber, "Legal Status of Teachers' Unions," *Nations Schools*, April, 1952, pp. 78-80.

communities. These organizations include business, fraternal, labor, social, religious, and citizens' groups. The United States Chamber of Commerce strongly urges improvement in education. The National Farmers' Union is placing emphasis on school reorganization to improve rural education. Outstanding among national organizations to improve education is the National Congress of Parents and Teachers composed of more than seven million members. Local chambers of commerce, service clubs, and fraternal organizations are sponsoring improved community programs which include education.

Perhaps the most significant recently organized group in support of education is the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. Launched in May, 1949, and supported by funds from three foundations, its one stated purpose is the improvement of the public schools. It is an organization composed of laymen, and seeks to further their interest in education through local, county, and state citizens' committees. The movement has assumed such proportions that thousands of such committees have been organized throughout the United States. The impact of these committees on education is one of the most significant educational phenomena in a generation.¹⁶

WORLD EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The promotion of international cooperation and understanding through education has challenged the best efforts of the teaching profession both in the United States and abroad. Education seems to be the most fruitful method available to overcome differences among nations which have brought about the world wars. The task has been difficult because of problems of language, transportation, culture, and common understandings.

World Federation of Education Associations

This association organized in 1923 was called together by leaders of the National Education Association. Six hundred representatives from fifty countries attended the first conference held in San Francisco. The primary purpose was to bring together educators from different countries in order to become better acquainted and ex-

¹⁶ *The School Executive*, January, 1952, is devoted almost entirely to the National Citizens' Commission and contains much information concerning it. On p. 108 are listed many other organizations who sponsor educational programs.

change information about their countries and educational systems. The program was handicapped because of difficulties of organization, communication, distance, and especially of support.

World Organization of the Teaching Profession

Realizing the necessity of overcoming the difficulties inherent in the World Federation of Education Associations and impelled by the international misunderstandings of World War II, leaders of the international movement believed that a more stable organization was needed. In August, 1946, a conference of educators representing teachers' associations in twenty-eight different countries met at Endicott, New York, under the leadership of the National Education Association. As an outcome, the World Organization of the Teaching Profession¹⁷ was formed. The first session was held in Glasgow, Scotland, the following year. Its purposes were conceived in terms of teaching international understanding through the cultivation of common ideals, and a sense of personal responsibility for cooperation with all peoples in all matters affecting human welfare. This can best be achieved through education, and more especially through well prepared and devoted teachers of all nations. The WOTP was given status as an official consultative body under Article 71 of the United Nations Charter.

In the six years of its existence, WOTP did much to fulfill its original purposes. Russell described it as a "powerful, growing organization . . . one voice that would speak for the teachers and children, one that would be above national jealousies, factional interests, and personal jealousies."¹⁸

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession

Even with the great progress made by WOTP in bringing about international understanding through education, there were other influential international teachers' associations not included in the membership. It was decided that these organizations should be

¹⁷ The Constitution will be found in "Constitution of the WOTP," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, October, 1947, pp. 58-61. The same issue contains a report of the first conference at Glasgow and other similar information. See also *Proceedings of the organization for 1947*.

¹⁸ William F. Russell, "A Report on the World Organization of the Teaching Profession," *Addresses and Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1952, p. 48.

brought together if a full and complete international educational program was to be realized.

Following the 1952 assembly of the WOTP, this organization merged with the International Federation of Teachers' Associations (elementary) and Federation Internationale des Professeurs de l'Enseignement Secondaire Officiel (secondary) to form the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession. This organization is now composed of teachers' organizations from thirty-seven countries. Membership in the association is through affiliation with representative delegates on a national and associate basis.¹⁹

The aims of the WCOTP are to (1) foster a conception of education toward the promotion of international understanding and good will, (2) improve teaching methods, educational organization, and preparation of teachers, (3) defend teaching, and (4) promote closer relationships between teachers in different countries. Affiliated with WCOTP from the United States in 1952 are the National Education Association (490,000 members), American Federation of Teachers (20,000 members), and American Teachers' Association (13,614 members).

OTHER PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

American Teachers Association

Fourteen state associations for Negro teachers in the Middle Atlantic and Southern States are affiliated with the American Teachers Association with a national membership of approximately 13,500 members. This Association was originally formed in 1903. Its aims are similar to those of the National Education Association. The *American Teachers Association Bulletin*, a quarterly, serves as its official organ.

American Education Fellowship

The Progressive Education Association organized in 1917 has been influential in improving education through modification of traditional procedures and the promotion of a liberal philosophy and newer techniques. The child's whole personality is emphasized

¹⁹ Irving F. Pearson, "A New World Teachers' Organization," *NEA Journal*, October, 1952, p. 403. See also *NEA Handbook* (1952-1953), pp. 366-372.

with its development through activity and self-direction. As an outcome of misunderstanding and a desire to broaden its objectives, it was reorganized in 1947 as the American Education Fellowship. Newer trends emphasized include (1) rights of teachers in regard to community and political activities, (2) study of emerging social and economic reorganization as it pertains to education, and (3) furtherance of international understanding and good will through education and world organizations.

UNESCO

The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, commonly known as UNESCO, is a specialized agency of the United Nations. It seeks to bring about better understanding among the peoples of the world through education, science, and culture as its title implies. Founded in 1945, one of the first tasks was to encourage the physical reconstruction of educational facilities, and to stimulate again the free flow of ideas in all parts of the world, particularly where teachers had been restrained and freedom of thought and action suppressed. Among its more specific purposes are: elimination of illiteracy, world-wide interexchange of ideas and cultural achievements, and stimulation of cooperation among scientists, educators, and scholars. In achieving these ends, it is essential to encourage the broadest use of every means of intercommunication, in order to identify and remove social, religious, and racial tensions, and overcome prejudice and ignorance which hinder friendly relations.

Education is the cornerstone of UNESCO projects, which are designed to reach all parts of the world.²⁰ Schools must be developed and teachers trained for them in all countries. This means the development of teacher education institutions. Means must be provided to enable likely teachers to secure an education. There is need for textbooks, reference books, and teaching materials. The children in less favored areas often lack the bare essentials of a decent living standard, which adds to the problem. International exchange of teachers has been of great value in improving conditions and bringing about better understandings.

²⁰ *The UNESCO Story*, Washington, D.C., U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, 1950. See also *The Phi Delta Kappan*, October, 1947, pp. 62-79.

Professional and Honorary Associations

The profession of education has been greatly stimulated by the establishment of professional and honorary organizations in colleges and universities. These organizations are designed to promote interest in education and stimulate scholarship and leadership. They serve also to create interest in teaching and encourage young people to consider it as a career. Membership is often by invitation and is based on outstanding service, promise or service.

Organized on both the undergraduate and graduate levels, honorary organizations have been influential in developing education policy and insuring higher professional standards. Illustrative of this group are Phi Delta Kappa, a national education fraternity for men, Phi Lambda Theta for women, and Kappa Delta Phi for both. The objectives of Phi Delta Kappa are research, service, and leadership in education. The journal *Phi Delta Kappan* contains many educational articles of high quality.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers

The parent-teacher movement dates from 1858 when a group of interested mothers and teachers felt that more could be accomplished for their children by working together. The primary objective of the parent-teacher association is that of fostering the desirable educational welfare of childhood in any school-community. Its ideals are nonpolitical, nonsectarian, noncommercial, and entirely altruistic. The association is national in scope with state and local associations in every state. Membership is now over seven million members with a wide representation of teachers and other educational workers.²¹

Future Teachers of America

Of professional interest to all teachers is the recruitment of likely young persons for the profession. The Future Teachers of America, organized in 1937 and sponsored by the National Education Association, encourages young men and women in high school and college to consider teaching as a career, through chapters organized with this purpose in view. To stimulate interest in teaching, ap-

²¹ Consult William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York: Dryden Press, 1951, chap. 17, for a more complete account.

proved projects are sponsored based on a system of merit points, for which certificates are issued. The active membership in nearly five hundred active chapters is approximately 25,000.

Accrediting and Standardizing Associations

The principal function of these associations is the development and application of educational standards. Best illustrations are the six regional accrediting associations for secondary and higher education. These associations have, as their major function, the improvement of secondary schools and institutions of higher learning. Membership in the associations depends upon meeting the accepted standards. Of major interest in this connection is the development and application of a technique of evaluation by using the *Evaluative Criteria*. These criteria have been determined after careful study. After a period of self-study, a school or college is visited by a committee which reviews the results and evaluates the school as a whole. These procedures have been of great value especially in improving the professional status of secondary schools. Attempts have been made with partial success to apply the technique to the evaluation of elementary schools.

Organizations Concerned with Special Educational Interests

The wide range of teacher interest in education is best expressed in the groups of specialized organization in which teachers are enrolled. The first group of organizations are those concerned with subject specialties, as physics, music, English, mathematics, and commercial teachers. For the most part these groups are national in scope holding national and regional conventions and conferences, designed to promote the specific interests of the group.

A second classification includes specialized interests covering a wider scope. Examples are associations for adult education, child health, kindergarten, vocational education, and radio. Other examples include Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts, and Girl Reserves. A third group centers its activities about an institution rather than individuals, designing to improve its program and activities. These are illustrated by the associations of junior colleges, dental schools, and colleges and universities. Still a fourth classification includes teachers in special positions such as visiting teachers, public school business officials, and directors of vocational education.

This list might be further extended to include the many departments affiliated with the National Education Association. The wide range of interests and activities have undoubtedly stimulated the development of the teaching profession.

Mention should be made of the numerous educational Foundations and Boards holding more than a billion dollars in trust for educational and related purposes. The schools have benefited immeasurably from the proceeds of these endowments, improving the teachers and their work, and benefiting education, health, and public welfare in general.

American Council on Education

Founded in 1918 for the specific purpose of mobilizing the educational resources of the nation, the American Council on Education has become a center of cooperation and coordination for the improvement of education on all levels. It has been a clearinghouse for the exchange of information and opinions, and has conducted many scientific inquiries and investigations into specific educational problems. Other lines of activity include coordination of appropriate agencies in the solution of pertinent problems, stimulation of experimental activities, pioneering in methodology, such as tests, examinations, and cumulative records. It has been instrumental in legislative activity affecting education. Its publications, including its quarterly journal *The Educational Record*, and annual reports number more than 200 subjects. Since it is a council of national educational associations, colleges, universities, and school systems, its policies and publications have been influential in the field of education. Many of its committees and reports affect teacher education at many points, examples being the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education and the study of the characteristics of successful teachers.

SIGNIFICANCE OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Outstanding Role

There is universal agreement that teachers' associations have played an outstanding role in the advancement of public education in general and especially in the improvement of teachers and teaching. These organizations have sponsored many causes in the interest

of child welfare, and have furthered many activities concerned with teacher welfare and high professional attainment. There is a marked contrast between earlier associations and those of our time.²² There is now greater emphasis on organization and leadership, on problems of teacher welfare and professional and social improvement, and on adequate acceptance and support of education.

Gains Attained

Proper organization has been the principal means whereby these gains have been attained on every level, state, national, local. Trained leadership has been essential within each organization and at each level. As there is strength in numbers, it is obvious that total membership of each group is the desired goal. While top leadership is highly important, the strength of association work is at the local level. It is here that interest is aroused and gains made meaningful. Much has been accomplished through legislation sponsored by these associations. Teachers point with pride to their economic gains, such as better salaries, retirement, tenure, social security, and group insurance. Lay interest has been aroused and public support secured as a result. Without doubt, professional organizations have been the principal means of defending education against attack. They have determined policy and served the interests of particular groups. They have served to make teaching a better profession so that young people are attracted to it and remain for greater service. The economic and social status of teachers have been advanced until teaching now ranks with the greater professions.

Problems

While much has been accomplished through educational organizations, much remains to be accomplished. Occasionally the public has come to believe that teachers are overorganized, that their demands are unreasonable and unsound, that the methods they use, such as threats or even strikes, are unprofessional and are not considered in the broader interest of child welfare which they profess to serve. There may be need for a reconsideration of all forms of educational organization with an ultimate reduction in top level

²² The reader will find an interesting contrast in earlier and contemporary associations in Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York, American Book Company, 1939, chaps. 20, 33.

staff. Dues are increasing and are becoming a heavy burden on poorly paid teachers. The multiplicity of educational literature overlaps at many points. Perhaps few can even scan, much less digest, the variety of educational literature at one's disposal. One might be led to inquire if the large number of organizations built around educational specialities of all sorts does not in itself make for dispersion of interests rather than the unified efforts now so greatly needed.

Need for Review of Organized Efforts

Many writers are coming to believe that there is now a great need for a review of our organized educational efforts. Cocking²³ points out the evils of lethargy, selfishness, desire for power, ambition, rivalry, and competition that are evident. He proposes a consolidation of organizations in order to consider and announce policies of common interests and to agree on a united program of action. This appeal has much merit. Through overorganization, our efforts have become divisive. We are unable to meet adequately attacks on education or solve common problems. In doing so, care must be taken not to develop thereby another organization which removes yet another step in the control of education from the local area where it belongs. The problem is how to unify our efforts while maintaining our democratic structure.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the objectives of teachers' associations during the nineteenth century with contemporary associations. What are the essential differences?
2. What are the influences which led to the formation of the National Education Association?
3. Give specific evidence of the influence of the Educational Policies Commission upon education in the United States.
4. Make a list of the different types of publications of the National Education Association and affiliated bodies. Rank them in order of value to the profession.
5. Study your own state educational association as to (a) organization, (b) program, and (c) professional influence.
6. Study a local educational association of your choice as to (a) organization, (b) membership, (c) program, and (d) value.

²³ Walter D. Cocking, "Coordination of Educational Organizations," *School Executive*, February, 1945, p. 27.

7. Compare the arguments advanced for and against teachers affiliating with labor organizations.
8. Should teachers strike? Take a position and defend it.
9. What are the problems associated with the development of the WCOTP? Do you have suggested solutions?
10. Indicate in order some influences of the American Education Fellowship on education.
11. Visit a chapter of Future Teachers of America. What is the value of this organization? How can young persons become interested in teaching through FTA?
12. Examine the section on significance of educational organizations. What other values and contributions can you add to the list given? To what extent is education overorganized? Defend your answer.

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Ethics in the Teaching Profession

EVEN a man who lives alone, say on a lonely island, has need to establish right relationships. He is subject to natural laws and he will suffer if he does not obey them. With his dog or other animal there is the necessity to determine some satisfying degree of relationship if either or both are to survive. As soon, however, as another man comes upon the scene, the necessity for some pattern of mutually acceptable conduct becomes evident, if both are to enjoy any measure of human happiness or even survive.

Social customs among peoples have developed over the centuries which have become guiding as well as limiting standards of conduct. Many of these have been established as an outcome of some form of personal conflict and resulting judicial procedure, and are known as the common law. They have become precedents, and where they exist and apply, are taken into consideration by the Courts in interpreting courses of action. Moral conduct has been determined largely from Biblical sources as interpreted by religious groups. Common decency is an important factor in governing the affairs of men, perhaps arising out of instinctive action or self-protection. Man has instituted governments with legislative powers. He is subject to national laws, state statutes, municipal ordinances, motor vehicle codes, school codes, and administrative directives, with a multitude of interpretations by the Courts and administrative departments. Penalties are imposed and restrictions prescribed which limit his course of action.

Outside the legal framework, there has developed over the years a different approach to the problem of governing the conduct of men, especially conduct that pertains to specific group relationships.

Standards of conduct have come to have specific application within groups because there is a different approach to the problem of governing the conduct of those who compose them. There is a different environment and different set of circumstances which seem to emphasize the necessity of specific guides to conduct. Especially is this true of the professions, where specialized knowledges and skills are necessary, and where social service is the essential characteristic. These standards of conduct are known as codes of ethics.

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss ethics as applied to the teaching profession. The development of codes of ethics in general and of the teaching profession in particular will be presented. Specific codes will be analyzed, especially that of the National Education Association. Other aspects to be discussed are enforcement, violations, instruction, values, and making codes functional. Finally, codes of ethics will be contrasted with teachers' rights and responsibilities.

DEFINITION AND INFERENCES

Tradition

The approach to the study of ethical principles within a profession is through a clear understanding of those relationships which bind a society or group together, and by implication separate groups from each other. The very existence of a group may depend on its adherence to its social inheritance and current governing fabric. Tradition is a powerful social force. It binds a social group with the past, and establishes thereby a memorial of important consequence to the present. Thus the Oath of Hippocrates¹ (460-377 b.c.) has become a tradition in the profession of medicine and has profoundly influenced its practice.

Common Law

The common law has become the warp and woof of our legal system. The rule of *stare decisis*, "to stand by decided cases," has established an enormous body of principles governing courses of action. Judicial procedure holds, in part, that there is somewhere a rule of known law which will cover the facts of the dispute under

¹ See Edgar L. Heermance, *Codes of Ethics*, Burlington, Vt.: Free Press Printing Company, 1924, p. 337, for a statement of this oath.

litigation. The problem is to discover and apply it through precedent and rationalization. It is important to point out that social change does have a modifying effect on the influence of tradition and the common law. Social disunity in any form may bring about changes which affect conduct as well as law.

Three Levels of Conduct

Ethical conduct may be the result of many factors. Tradition plays an important part, as we have seen. Social change develops courses of action which in time become tradition. The emergence of a group having common interests may necessitate the development of a body of principles governing their conduct, both for their own self-protection as well as for their greater social service. Dewey and Tufts² have pointed out three levels of conduct and their motives: (1) conduct arising from instinct and fundamental needs, (2) conduct regulated by standards of society for a conscious end, and (3) conduct regulated by a standard which is both social and rational. This tends to become the level of conscience. The motive in the first is external; in the second to seek and do good which is social, being guided both by one's intelligence and habits; and in the third to know and do the good "with all his heart," because he knows that to do the good is both right and good. Naturally this is the highest end of man and has implications both for his own group as well as his relationships to all other groups. To accomplish the highest good is to slough off those inhibitions of tradition, prejudice, and egocentrism, not in harmony with the highest good one can achieve.

Definition

A concise definition of *ethics* according to Webster's Dictionary is as follows: "The science which treats of the nature and laws of the actions of intelligent human beings, these actions being considered in relation to their moral qualities; the science which treats of the nature and grounds of moral obligation; the science of human duty; a particular system of principles and rules concerning duty whether true or false; rules of practice in respect to a single class of human actions."

² John Dewey and James H. Tufts, *Ethics*, New York, Henry Holt & Company, 1908, pp. 38-39.

DEVELOPMENT OF CODES OF ETHICS IN GENERAL

Origins

While members of the professions have been interested in standards of conduct for their profession for many years, interest in professional ethics became pronounced shortly after the turn of the present century. The movement has been the direct outcome of an effort to obtain a better adjustment to the society in which we live. All conduct is the outcome of certain conditions and effects which, if corrected by standards of action, bring about greater human progress and happiness. While certain ethical principles may apply more or less universally, group associations had been found to have different problems which necessitated different standards of practice. These have emerged through association and have been developed as a matter of self-preservation. At first unwritten, the written code has been found to be the most effective means of accomplishing these results, and undoubtedly has served as the principal means of strengthening the various professions. The code became the guide to daily practice, in order to correct evils, set up goals, and through decisions establish a sort of "common law" for the professions. From time to time it is modified and improved through study and practice.

Current Situation

While the Hippocratic Oath has served as a more or less official statement of professional spirit and standards, the American Medical Association adopted a code for its members in 1912. The American Bar Association adopted its Code of Ethics in 1908, and the Canons of Judicial Ethics in 1923. Interest grew among the other professions and vocations, until by 1924 Heermance³ identified two hundred different codes and statements of standards. Of these, 52 were adopted between 1900 and 1920, and 140 between 1920 and 1924. Since that time interest has continued until all professions have now adopted standards of conduct. These codes have done much to encourage better professional conduct and higher social levels generally. Ethics, as one writer put it, became fashionable.⁴

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ Richard C. Cabot, *Adventures on the Borderlands of Ethics*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1926, p. vii.

DEVELOPMENT OF CODES OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS

The development of professional standards of conduct among teachers has paralleled the movement among other professional and vocational groups. The first official state code for teachers was adopted in 1896 by the State Teachers' Association of Georgia. The California Association followed in 1904 and the Alabama Association in 1908. By 1920 teachers' associations of eight states had adopted official codes, by 1930, of thirty-three states. The National Education Association appointed a committee on ethics in 1924, and in 1929 officially approved the code recommended by that committee. Increased interest in ethics for teachers was accentuated through conventions, publications, and leadership generally in the nationwide movement for improved ethical practices in the business and professional world. The Code of Ethics of the National Education Association was revised in 1941 and again in 1952.⁵ Nearly all state associations have either adopted individual codes of ethics for teachers or have adopted the NEA code, and have set up committees and procedures designed to improve their professional relationships. In addition, many school systems have developed their own codes of ethics to enhance their own professional status. There is general agreement that this movement has been the principal means of developing teaching as a great profession.

THE CODE OF ETHICS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The code of ethics of the National Education Association has been selected as typical of all codes of ethics for teachers. A preamble points out the primary purpose of education to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve democracy. Since the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession, whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

Following this preliminary statement five principles are set forth which apply to all aspects of education, elementary, secondary, and collegiate. These principles are as follows:⁶

⁵ "New NEA Code of Ethics," *National Education Association Journal*, September, 1952, pp. 371-372.

⁶ *NEA Journal, op. cit.*

1. The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide learners in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, and help them to become happy, useful, and self supporting citizens. Six standards of conduct follow, such as, to deal justly and impartially, recognize differences, encourage students, develop understanding, and regard confidential matters.
2. Teachers should share with parents the task of shaping students' acts and purposes toward socially adapted ends. This can be accomplished through respect of responsibility of parents, friendly relationships, increasing pupils' confidence, information to the home, and interpreting the purposes of the schools.
3. Teachers should respect proper relationships with the community. This can be accomplished through reasonable patterns of behavior, citizenship duties, proper discussion of controversial issues, urging lay participation, and respect for the community with a reasonable participation in its activities.
4. Teachers have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These pertain to proper conduct of personal business, approved methods of seeking employment, honoring one's contractual and other obligations, change of position, accepting gifts or other compensation in line of duty, doubtful outside employment, and acceptance of one's obligation cheerfully and cooperatively.
5. The teaching profession is distinguished from many other professions by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. This standard is a determining factor in regard to community confidence and support. This principle implies obligation to deal generously with other members of the profession, speak constructively, seek professional growth, and make the teaching profession attractive in ideals and practices so that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

ADMINISTERING CODES OF ETHICS

Approach

Since ethical principles bear similar characteristics to group customs, the approach to their administration may be found in the means used by society in the past to enforce its customs. The means commonly accepted are public opinion or approval, taboos, ritual or ceremony, and physical force or restraint applied in some manner. Public approval may be expressed in terms of praise, ridicule, and contempt. Taboos imply fear in some form. Ritual is a positive agent

resulting in habit principally through association. Physical force may imply trial, decision, penalty, and perhaps elimination from the group.

Vestiges of these means of enforcement are quite apparent in the administration of codes of ethics for teachers and may be said to underlie modern approaches to their administration. The following have been effectively used.

Preselection

Rigorous preselection techniques are being applied in teacher education institutions in order to discourage unworthy candidates at the point of entrance into the profession. When selected, instruction in ethical principles and practices should be made mandatory for all students.

Conferences

Perhaps the most effective method of instilling codes of ethics in teachers is through group meetings and conferences, through presentation and discussion, preferably by teachers themselves. Younger teachers particularly can profit by these discussions. Conferences under the direction of state and national associations have proved quite effective in developing ideals within the profession and in interpreting and applying sections of codes. The end results should be to develop "high ethical quotients" in all teachers.

Making Ethics "Contagious"

Since ethical principles are in reality the framework of proper attitudes toward teaching, it is obvious that much can be done within a teaching group to make ethics "contagious" through both precept and example. Constant emphasis on these principles under varying circumstances is one of the best ways to administer them, emphasizing the positive approach. Teachers can be brought to understand that a code of ethics gives them professional status.⁷ Moreover, the protection of the profession provides an added measure of confidence. Teachers can be of considerable influence on each other through adherence to the ethical principles they subscribe to.

⁷ William S. Taylor, "How Contagious Is Ethics?" *National Education Association Journal*, May, 1949, pp. 356-357.

Violations

Many codes of ethics have included either by statement or implication examples of violations of the principles. Thus an unacceptable act is interpreted as a violation of a responsibility or a trust and assumes notice in accordance with the gravity of the situation. Jessup⁸ has analyzed 500 cases of reported violations of ethical standards and has concluded the following as the ten most frequent: (1) disparaging remarks and harping criticisms of staff members, (2) favoritism in some form, (3) contractual irresponsibility, (4) disinterest in educational organizations, (5) criticism of students and community, (6) disloyalty to the school system in any form, (7) lack of promptness to school and its appointments, (8) lack of proper moral standards, (9) failure to recognize authority as in a superintendent, and (10) undermining one's associates. Other violations include intemperance, salary undercutting, failure to observe rules, and carelessness in personal appearance.

The approach to any violation should be in terms of its gravity. Private admonition may be all that is needed. Public opinion is always a powerful incentive, although its application may be too harsh for the occasion. The code itself may provide the method of approach, as through a committee. If the violation is serious enough to involve impairment of teaching efficiency, it may require school board action, action by a state or national ethics committee, or loss of privilege as the teaching certificate, or even dismissal.

Commission on Ethics

The National Education Association has a standing commission on professional ethics, whose duty is to study and take appropriate action in such cases of violation of its code as may be reported. In addition, the commission publishes the code, promotes its use, and recommends modification. Eckelberry⁹ has pointed out that the NEA can (1) expel its members, (2) apply other appropriate actions, (3) censure its members, (4) prosecute its members, and (5) recommend such penalties as removal, revocation of certificate, and

⁸ John H. Jessup, "Violations of Ethical Standards," *The Clearing House*, February, 1948, p. 364.

⁹ R. H. Eckelberry, "Incident or Policy," *Educational Research Bulletin*, February, 1946, pp. 49-50.

other disciplinary action suited to the offense. He advocates a policy of "continuous enforcement."

The administration of codes of ethics is probably best accomplished at the state and local levels. Many state associations have standing committees on professional ethics with varying responsibilities. These committees can develop their own codes of ethics or accept and apply the *NEA Code*. They can instruct their members in its principles through printed and other materials and interpret its clauses as occasions demand. They can investigate infractions reported to it, and stimulate continuing growth of ethical attitudes among the membership. They can encourage young people of high ethical character and ideals to enter and remain in the profession. Other means of administering codes of ethics are through the co-operation of teacher education institutions in instruction, textbooks in education, professional literature, the public press, and lay group meetings as school board conventions.

Local Ethics Committees and Enforcement

An active ethics committee should be organized locally within each teachers' association. Such a committee should be a well-chosen, representative group of the most highly respected teachers, so that their actions can be above suspicion. The committee work should include interpretation of the code, collaboration with state and national committees, impartial investigation of reported unethical conduct of the membership, and in extreme cases positive action for violations. Perhaps the most important service of such an ethics committee is the development of high ethical conduct among all teachers, thereby raising immeasurably community respect for the teachers as well as greater confidence in themselves. Fadenrecht¹⁰ believes that there is a great need for state education associations to be diligent in the dissemination of information as to codes of ethics. He believes that these standards should be more rigidly enforced. He proposes four criteria for their enforcement: (1) the existence of enforcement machinery, (2) ways and means of reporting violations, (3) avenues of recourse available to committees, and (4) legal counsel available to teachers. All teachers should be fully entitled to

¹⁰ J. H. Fadenrecht, "One Code of Ethics—Understood and Enforced," *Nations Schools*, October, 1948, pp. 52-53.

recourse when censured of any violation. However, if found guilty, they should be penalized as the code and common sense may indicate.

Opinions

Recently the National Education Association has begun the issue of official opinions with reference to reported unethical practices, as these pertain to sections of the NEA Code of Ethics. These opinions are designed to clarify fundamental issues of widespread interest to the profession. Where advisable, the benefits of legal counsel has been sought. It is felt that these opinions will in time constitute a body of "common law" which will be of inestimable value in professional practice. The first three of these decisions pertained to (1) applications for positions, (2) unwarranted and unfair attacks against professional associates, and (3) solicitation and sale of commercial products to professional associates.¹¹

INSTRUCTION IN ETHICAL PRINCIPLES

Significance

The effectiveness of codes of professional ethics depends, in the last analysis, upon the extent to which these principles are disseminated among the members of a profession and are fully understood and observed by them. While there must be constant emphasis at all times within the profession, there is general agreement that prospective members of the various professions should be introduced in an effective manner to the ethical standards and ideals of the profession as they enter it. Three specific types of instruction are found in practice: (1) definite courses in professional ethics, (2) consideration of ethics in specific units of different courses, and (3) incidental instruction in ethical principles as the occasion arises. Some professions, such as law and medicine, lay considerable stress on ethics through course instruction. Arguments for course instruction are (1) increasing complexity of modern living and its professional relationships, (2) new members of the profession should be prepared to meet the embarrassing and difficult problems of their

¹¹ *NEA Journal*, January, 1952, p. 37; March, 1952, p. 155; May, 1952, p. 305; and later issues.

profession, as they pertain to ethical matters, and (3) incidental teaching is usually ineffective. Naturally, in course instruction much depends upon the quality of instruction and the pertinence of the problems considered.

Prevailing Practice

The prevailing practice in the teaching profession is to emphasize professional ethics within the course structure of nearly all professional courses. Comparatively few institutions offer courses in ethics as such. The principal courses used for such emphasis are Introduction to Teaching, administrative courses, principles of education, practice teaching methods, and a scattering in the other specifically titled professional courses. The prevailing methods are to include one or more units within these courses, and to emphasize ethical principles as they may arise within other units in ethics by State Department regulations, or in agreement with teachers' associations.

Incidental instruction in professional ethics appears to be widely practiced in teacher education institutions. It is felt that every course of instruction, and indeed many incidents in daily routine, offer strategic opportunities to inculcate proper professional conduct. It is further held by many that the establishment of definite courses or units in ethics instruction creates an artificial situation in which practical problems are divorced from the true situation. Obviously, the effectiveness of ethical instruction is in direct relationship to its practical application.

Issues

It will be observed in this discussion that there is a sharp issue between those who favor a direct approach to moral instruction and those who advocate an indirect approach. Perhaps this issue may not be resolved finally, since there is virtue in both approaches. A judicious combination of both methods seems reasonable. In any event studies have shown the wide lack of information among prospective teachers and teachers in service, as to a knowledge of specific principles of ethics and their application. Whatever the method used, teacher education institutions do have a primary responsibility in acquainting their students with the ethical standards and practices accepted by the teaching profession, as well as by administra-

tors, supervisors, and other staff members. It is an area in which much needs to be done. Especially is more reliable research needed.¹²

VALUES OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

At this point it seems appropriate to emphasize the values which should proceed from the study and application of accepted ethical principles. While some hold that the modern emphasis in professional ethics is attributed to professional idealism, it is more likely that this interest is the direct outcome of a developing sense of moral responsibility. As a profession advances in vigor and prestige, as it emphasizes its ethical standards, calamities such as war and social schisms serve to accentuate the need for such study and application.

Influences

Codes of ethics are agencies for social control. As they are developed from within the group, expressed in good form, disseminated, and understood, they have a potent influence on the conduct of the membership. Clarity of experience is of great significance. Provisions for enforcement and the acceptance of the means agreed upon thereto are quite important. Care must be taken, however, that a code does not become so strict and binding on its members in furthering their own interests professionally that the profession loses sight of its larger service to humanity and degenerates into selfish practices. This can become its greatest weakness.

Making Codes Functional

Assuming that codes of ethics are well understood by teachers, questions arise as to how they can be made more functional for each teacher insofar as his own problems are concerned. While he may have an awareness of standards which generally apply, he may not be aware of their application to his own problems. There are two approaches which may be used: one through a state ethics committee, and the other through his own local organization. Through his local committee, he may seek solutions to his individual problems. Questions may arise as to his own responsibilities and restrictions, conditions of employment, and working relationships. He

¹² For a list of suggested research areas, the reader is referred to "Codes of Ethics for Teachers," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 216-218.

may need protection when under criticism, as in discussing social problems. The board of education may need clarification of some issue and may appeal to a local committee. The code may be used to protect the profession from incompetents, establish fair play policies, and protect teachers through tenure and retirement. It may be used to strengthen the local association and establish better relations with the state and national associations. In cases where violations are reported, such a code of ethics usually provides the proper procedures in protecting both the accused as well as the profession.

CODES OF ETHICS FOR SPECIAL TEACHER GROUPS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND SCHOOL BOARDS

While the emphasis in this chapter is upon codes of ethics for teachers in general, special groups of teachers have given attention to adaptation of ethical principles as they apply to their own problems. For example, industrial arts teachers have recently adopted such a code,¹³ as have other teacher groups. Reeder¹⁴ proposes a code of ethics for school administrators designed to supplement the *NEA Code*. This code consists of two sections: (1) relations with pupils and to the community and state (seven provisions), and (2) relations to the profession (nineteen provisions).

School boards have been giving consideration to the development of codes of ethics which can apply mutually with the teacher. The New York State School Board Association is the first state organization to cooperate in this manner with the State Teachers' Association. This code is unique in many ways in that it recognizes the problems of school boards and teachers as mutual, locates their responsibilities, and pledges cooperation in their solution. This is illustrated by #15: "The teacher is proud of his profession; the school board is proud of its teachers."¹⁵

¹³ John J. Metz, "A Code of Ethics for Industrial Arts Teachers," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, November, 1948, p. 358.

¹⁴ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 34-37.

¹⁵ New York State School Board Association, Inc., and State Teachers' Association, "New York State Mutual Code of Ethics for School Boards and Teachers," *American School Board Journal*, February, 1951, p. 36.

**CODES OF ETHICS IN RELATION TO TEACHERS' RIGHTS
AND RESPONSIBILITIES**

Students of American history are quite familiar with the debates following the adoption of the Constitution of the United States leading to the adoption of the first ten amendments to the Constitution and known as the Bill of Rights. These are universally applicable to all Americans. Within each profession, however, situations have developed in which codes of ethics do not necessarily apply, and which are not specifically interpreted through the Bill of Rights referred to above, or any interpretations thereof. Certain advantages have been taken of teachers in their professional employment, such as heavy class and pupil load, lack of working materials, inadequate income, withholding of salary, and the like. These situations have been difficult to correct, causing professional dissatisfaction.

The Pennsylvania State Education Association recently appointed a committee to investigate these conditions. As an outcome a Bill of Rights for teachers has been adopted by the Association, built upon the concept that teaching is a profession and the solution of its problems must be based on the professional approach. Within the framework of the law, teachers have rights as teachers which should be respected. Each right, however, carries with it a corresponding responsibility.

The Bill of Rights¹⁶ as adopted contains seventeen items, specifically applicable to each teacher and his work. Examples of these rights pertain to reasonable class size and pupil load, constructive and sympathetic supervision, good working materials, adequate physical conditions, participation in school policy and program, engaging in professional activities, salary when due, having his position defined, and political participation consistent with the American way of life. These rights as adopted will need refinement and interpretation from time to time. Moreover, they may require legislation in some instances. This is indeed a forward step in making teaching a better profession. However, it should be pointed out, in closing, that with every right that a teacher may possess as a teacher

¹⁶ "Report of the Bill of Rights Committee," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, December, 1952, pp. 149-150; December, 1951, pp. 150-152.

there is a corresponding responsibility, and unless the teacher assumes this responsibility, the significance of the right is inconsistent with teaching as a great social service.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Examine several definitions of ethics, morals, and conduct, and compare them with those in the chapter. What does the term "professional ethics" mean to you?
2. To what extent are we influenced by tradition in our professional conduct? Illustrate.
3. In parallel columns compare the codes of ethics of at least three other professions with those of teaching, using the *NEA Code* for education.
4. Similarly, compare the codes of ethics of at least four states. What are the essential differences?
5. To what extent should codes of ethics be modified to apply more specifically to groups of teachers, as high-school teachers, English teachers, home economics teachers, etc.?
6. To what extent have we developed a sufficient number of interpretations of our ethical principles which might be said to become the "common law" of the teaching profession? Illustrate.
7. Examine the problem of administering code of ethics. Locate practices in several states. What additional suggestions can you add for a better administration of these ethical principles?
8. Take position with respect to instruction in ethical principles by (a) course, (b) unit in a course, (c) incidental teaching, and (d) group discussion.
9. Make a study of a group of teachers in order to ascertain their knowledge of the *NEA Code* or any other code. (See *NEA Journal*, April, 1946, p. 212, for an example of a "professional quiz.")
10. If young teachers are thoroughly instructed in ethical principles during their preparation, to what extent is later emphasis necessary? Compare the medical profession in this respect.
11. Suggest several ways that ethics may be made "contagious" among teachers.
12. Is the New York plan of developing a cooperative code of ethics for school board members and teachers desirable? Comment.

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PART VII

*Educational Leadership and Organization
for Personnel Administration*

The Significance of Educational Leadership in Administering the Personnel Function

THE magnitude of the task of administering the personnel function in the educational enterprise should now be obvious to any serious student of education. The transmission of the cultural heritage through education of itself requires leadership of a high order, but the improvement of a free society through education challenges the best statesmanship, personnel, and resources that the nation can assemble. Our cultural progress is making constant demands upon education in each community. The impetus for these demands comes largely from without the schools, and is felt on all levels, local, state, and national, even now on an international level. The schools must assume responsibility for their share of social improvement and develop in childhood and youth sensitivity to this endeavor. Vigorous and competent educational leaders are essential in each community to understand local problems and needs, attract and retain efficient personnel, and develop a sound and satisfying educational program.

To this end educational leadership requires well-trained men and women with vision and courage. This leadership implies ability to engage many persons in the process of educational development, to plan cooperatively with them, sharing, contributing, and working together to improve the community in attaining a better way of living for all. Through education all persons in a community can profit. Social problems are met and solved and the American way of life fostered and improved.

It is the purpose of this chapter to define educational leadership and point out its significant characteristics in relation to the educational function. The preparation of educational leaders will be discussed, both as to pre-, as well as in-service preparation. The educational leader's relation to the board of education, staff, and community will be presented. The chapter studies methods for evaluation, blocks to leadership, and finally a code of ethics for educational leaders.

WHAT IS EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP?

Concept

One's concept of leadership is always associated with the nature of the society of which it is a part. In a nonfree society, the leadership is dominant and autocratic and its will prevails, determining the beliefs and attitudes of those who are led. There is no redress from such predetermined leadership; it is to follow and obey. But in a free society, leadership emerges from the group. It is at all times subject to the control of free men through constituted means. While men obey in a free society as they should, they at the same time determine the nature and duration of that obedience.

Democratic Nature

Educational leadership in a free society must be democratic. The leader may emerge out of the group for one occasion, and be a part of the group for another. Thus leadership may be centralized or it may be diffused, depending on the situation. Always it seeks to be creative, to improve the situation, seeking the best interests of all rather than the self-interests of the few. Wise educational leadership develops interest and creative endeavor in others. It commands their respect. It reduces friction, removes barriers, alleviates emotional tensions, inspires confidence, and seeks unselfish ends. Leadership is not necessarily resident at all times in a single person; some responsibility for the enterprise at stated times may be assumed by different persons. Leadership requires training even in the "born leader," and entails with it responsibility for action.

Haskew¹ has pointed out that leadership means different things

¹ Lawrence D. Haskew, "School Administration Is Confused with Process of Leadership," *Nations Schools*, January, 1951, pp. 33-34.

to different people. He identifies four types of meanings, (1) directional, in which leadership is conceived as a process of *directing* the activities of others; (2) positional, where authority is imposed, (3) personal, depending on the quality of the personality of the leader, and (4) relational, depending upon relationship established among the group. Haskew suggests that emphasis on leadership must be interpersonal, so that the ideas (will) of one person are accepted and followed by others. These ideas must be in accord with democratic values and further the educational objectives.

Leadership Roles

Every professional educator has many leadership roles. Since education is so complex and there are many tasks to perform, there is no one pattern to determine the nature of each role. The nature of the leadership in each community will need to be adapted to each situation, since communities differ in so many ways and since the personnel in each school system vary widely in abilities and interests. The statutes themselves may place certain responsibilities upon the leader which he cannot evade. He may be similarly charged by the board of education.

In one community the chief problem confronting leadership may pertain to the improvement of the educational program; in another, financial problems may demand leadership of a different nature. A leader may be influenced by his principals, supervisors, teachers, and parents. His personality is a powerful factor in his success. There may be occasions when he must take dynamic decisive action; other occasions when the conditions require the slower processes of democratic group action. Whatever the approach, the action taken should be one of reasonable consensus, accompanied by an assurance that the right steps have been taken. Confidence in the leader himself may overcome the seeming opposition of the moment, especially where a decision must be made with the outcome uncertain.

THE LEGAL BASIS OF THE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

Types of Superintendents

The school superintendency is commonly recognized as the focus of educational leadership for the American public schools. Three types of school superintendents developed through the years: (1)

the district (city) superintendent at the local level; (2) the county superintendent at the local and intermediate levels; and (3) the state superintendent at the state level.

City School Superintendent

The city school superintendent has been in existence a little more than a century and is now prevalent in all larger cities and towns. At first these officers played a minor role in educational leadership. Recently, they have grown tremendously in numbers and influence as to constitute the most influential educational leaders of the nation. While the superintendent performs many functions, probably his most significant role is concerned with the school staff and the community. The creation of larger administrative units with more extended educational opportunities has been another factor in his leadership development.

State Superintendent

The development of the state superintendency was the direct outcome of the concept that education is a function of the state. State legislatures instituted state programs of education and provided for their administration through state educational leadership and support. As the scope of education has increased and more and more educational facilities have been provided, augmented responsibilities have been centered within the state office.

The role of a state superintendent and his office is conceived generally in terms of three broad functions: (1) leadership, which includes planning, advising and consulting, and coordinating; (2) regulatory, including efficiency in management, safeguarding state funds, and protecting lives and health of children; and (3) operational, which includes direct operation and control of certain parts of the system and the provision for certain direct services.²

State educational departments differ widely as to the nature and scope of these functions. At the same time important educational leadership functions and responsibilities reside in the office of the state superintendent. In fact, the efficiency of a state's educational

² For a more complete description of these functions, see Fred F. Beach, *The Functions of State Departments of Education*, Washington, D.C., Federal Security Agency, Misc. no. 12, 1950.

program may depend to a large degree on the vigor and educational statesmanship of the state superintendent of public instruction.

County Superintendent

The office of the county superintendent of schools may be of two types. In those states where the county is the unit of local school administration, the county superintendent performs local administrative functions required by law and exercises leadership functions similar to the local (city) superintendent. This has been the traditional conception. More recently, a different concept of educational leadership has been emerging, namely, the development of leadership on an intermediate level, between the local district level and the state level. Certain functions have been attached to the intermediate district which may best be performed on this level, largely those services not possible or feasible for administration on the local level. The leadership of this office is confined principally to rural areas and smaller school districts.³

Variations in the Offices

The authority for the existence, as well as the powers and duties of superintendents and their offices, are found in statutes, in state and local directories, and in the traditions of the offices. The scope and jurisdiction of each office differs, depending on the form and powers of the organization.⁴ Relationships differ between the state and local superintendents and between the local superintendents and local boards of education. There are varying qualifications for the offices as determined by certification and other standards, such as health, citizenship, and oath requirements. Superintendents may be elected by popular vote or appointed by a board. Some are appointed for a term of years; others have tenure status. While most superintendents are subject to the vagaries of politics, superintendents generally have a reasonable security in office. Unfortunately where politics does play an important role, the best qualified persons

³ Consult National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States, Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1950.

⁴ The reader will find a more extended account of the development of these three types of superintendencies in National Education Association, American Association of School Administration, *The American School Superintendency, Thirtieth Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1952, chap. 3.

are not always chosen. This situation extends to other administrative and teaching personnel and the schools suffer thereby.⁵

Responsibility for Personnel

Superintendents generally exercise responsibility for the administration of educational policies. One of the most important of these policies is his responsibility of the administration of the personnel function. This responsibility may extend to the conduct of examinations, local certification, eligibility lists, nominations of employees, recommendations, contractual formalities, assignment and transfer problems, tenure and retirement, supervision, and salary status. His administrative authority varies widely according to states and cities, and in relation to the delegated responsibilities as approved by the board. Naturally, the influence exercised by the superintendent depends upon his own vigor, personality, and the confidence reposed in him.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATIONSHIPS

Board of Education

In administering the personnel of his school system, the educational leader maintains many relationships. First of all he must develop a desirable working relationship with the board of education. While it is assumed that the board initially selected him because they reposed a certain confidence in his ability, he cannot always presume upon this confidence. Nor must it be forgotten that board members are individualists; they represent many local groups and are subject to various pressures. Ordinarily, they will follow the leadership of the superintendent in his development of a forward-looking educational program, one of the primary elements of which is a vigorous, well-selected, and cooperative staff.

Staff

The superintendent needs to develop desirable working relations with the staff. He is concerned with assignments, transfers, promotions, salary problems, supervision, rating, tenure, and retirement.

⁵ National Education Association, Research Division, "Legal Status of the School Superintendent," *Research Bulletin*, October, 1951. The student should consult the statutes and local rules and regulations as to the legal status of the superintendent in any state.

He is successful as he maintains a contented and industrious staff. This does not mean that the wishes of individual teachers should become the primary consideration; rather, that the welfare of the whole staff is made the chief concern. To accomplish this purpose, the staff should have some part in the determination of policies affecting them, for in so doing, they will be guided by their own endeavors and the contribution each can make. It should always be remembered, however, that where certain responsibilities are legally or otherwise imposed, the educational leadership must be assumed and cannot be evaded. The problem is always when and how to exercise the leadership.

Delegation of Responsibility

As the school system increases in size the superintendent must delegate the responsibilities of his office more and more to his administrative staff. Lines of administrative authority extend to line and staff officers, assistant superintendents, directors, supervisors, principals, and staff specialists, as psychologists. To each of these may be delegated certain responsibilities in regard to the administration of employees, such as supervision, teacher examinations, rating, and conferences.

As the school system increases in size and responsibilities delegated, a central policy should be set up in order to establish a working pattern designed to secure desirable relationship with the staff as a whole. The cooperative principle should be characteristic of this policy with each employee having a share in it as he is able. In the administration of any policy, there is no substitute for a certain confidence on the part of the staff with the administrative staff. Such confidence should be characterized by fairness, firmness, and pleasant association.⁶

The Community

Since leadership extends to the community as a whole, superintendents have many associations with its citizens. While these asso-

⁶ Securing group action in education through the cooperative principle is one of the most interesting educational developments of the past two decades. There is considerable literature on the subject. The reader might be interested in these pamphlets: "The Administrator and Group Dynamics," Albany, Capital Area School Development Association, 1952; "The Workshop Handbook," Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

ciations vary with communities, people generally may have a certain similarity in their responses although they may differ as to their attitudes and interests in education. People will respond to dynamic leadership which shows them a better educational program for their children. Parents do appreciate good teachers, especially those who live in the community and become a part of it.

PRESERVICE PREPARATION

If educational leadership is to be maintained on the high levels proposed in this chapter, it is obvious that attention should be given to adequate selection and preparation for this service. The first essential is to identify and encourage likely young persons with personality, natural abilities, and enthusiasm for devoted educational leadership. The most likely sources of recruits come from within the ranks of classroom teachers. Since experience is a necessary qualification, potential leaders can emerge through successive steps, as teacher to principal to supervisor. There is a tendency to attract qualified young men from fields other than education and make possible their attainment of the necessary preparation status.

The level of educational preparation of the typical superintendent of schools now in service may be said to be hardly better than the bachelor's degree. This is understandable with older superintendents who came up through the ranks at a time when this level, or below, was considered appropriate. During the past two decades the master's level has become the standard of preparation for most educational leaders, including superintendents, supervisors, and principals. Professional courses in administration and supervision fitted to the functions they perform have been developed in many states, leading to an administrative certificate based on this level of preparation. Institutions offering this preparation are approved, with a working relationship established with the state certification agency.

The doctorate in school administration has now become the desirable level of professional attainment for the educational leader. This educational level should be maintained in order to give top educational leadership, and sustain a professional status in the community equivalent to other high ranking professional groups. While there is a desire on the part of some groups to adopt the two-year postgraduate level of preparation, it should be pointed out that such a level should be considered as an expediency rather than as an

ultimate preparation level to be attained. Educational leaders holding a level of preparation below the doctorate might do well to look forward to its ultimate achievement.

The most fundamental need in developing preservice preparation for educational leaders is adequate education designed to improve the educational program. Building upon a broad general education, the educational leader should have a thorough understanding of the great areas of learning, especially the social sciences. The technical nature of his profession should be mastered with emphasis on human relationships. He should attain a dynamic educational philosophy and have some experience with the problems in the field through observations, field studies, and the internship. Throughout this preparation program, the methods of presentation in the areas studied should be appropriate to the nature of the content and the objectives to be achieved. He should have a thorough acquaintance with a wide variety of teaching materials, especially the utilization of natural and human resources, and social experiences. All of these should be constantly evaluated in the light of changing social and educational needs.

CERTIFICATION

Educational leadership is now officially recognized through some form of certification for superintendents, principals, supervisors, and others. Twenty-eight states now require that all superintendents of schools hold administrative certificates.⁷ Several states have requirements for certain types of administrative offices, as county superintendents. A master's degree is required for eligibility as a superintendent in fifteen states, graduate work beyond the bachelor's degree in seventeen states, and a bachelor's degree in eight states. While the typical level of preparation for an administrative certificate is the master's degree, it is reassuring to note that many educational leaders have gone beyond this level of preparation. Many are seeking to improve their professional status in many ways. Since the desirable level of teacher preparation is the master's degree, it is obvious that the educational leader has an obligation to surpass that level of attainment for his own professional self-respect.

⁷ National Education Association, Research Division, "Legal Status of the School Superintendent," *Research Bulletin*, October, 1951, pp. 96-905.

IN-SERVICE PREPARATION

The educational leader should be motivated to grow professionally while in service. Conceptions of the functions and procedures of educational leadership are in constant evolution. The size of the leadership task is expanding with increased enrollments, the need for adequate facilities, and the increasing complexity of the school program. The educational leader faces recurring problems of school support, staff improvement, and community pressures.

The approach to the in-service improvement of each educational leader should be individual. He will need to know his own deficiencies, especially in relation to his own peculiar problems and needs. Perhaps a good approach to in-service improvement is a program built upon a recognition of personal deficiencies. He should seek to attain a higher level of formal training leading ultimately to the doctorate in educational administration.

Much has been done in recent years to improve the professional status of educational leaders through informal means. These include conferences and work shops, school-study councils, institutes, conventions, cooperative planning, state and national education association activities and materials, professional magazines, travel, and individual efforts along many lines. The educational leader should be a critic of the impact of his own personality upon others. Since many of our educational leaders are older persons, it may be difficult to change established habits and desires. There is no better motivation than an earnest desire to do just that.

**ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP WHICH PERTAIN MORE
DIRECTLY TO THE SCHOOL STAFF***Personal Qualifications*

The educational leader should possess good health and vitality, with an absence of defects likely to detract from his effectiveness. Physical size is a desirable, although not an essential, characteristic. It should be accompanied by animation, a pleasing manner, and sense of humor. As these qualities are so essential in the administrator's social relationships, he should appraise his personal assets and deficiencies and make an effort to amend wherever advisable.

An educational leader should be a person with vision. While this can be cultivated, it grows out of one's ever-widening knowledge,

skills, and rich experiences. To attain vision, he must rise above details and routine, so that he can see clearly the nature and magnitude of the educational task. Vision should be accompanied by inward convictions. He should believe in the attainment of democratic ideals through education. He should believe that every member of his staff can and should make a contribution, and that every idea is entitled to a fair hearing. He should be sensitive at all times to the power of affection and practice it.

Social Relationships

The educational leader is constantly immersed in social situations, meeting many people, contacting many personalities, and making many decisions which have social impact. Many diverse ethnic, cultural, and social class groups attend the public schools and are interested in its welfare. Their attitudes are reflected in the pupils of the school in their social class distinctions and resulting problems.⁸ With teachers there are many problems involving the social interactions of staff members, extending even to conflict. These are illustrated in the relationships of teacher to teacher, teacher to administrator, teacher to parent, and teacher to pupil.⁹ Every pupil makes many contacts within the community. Social pressures emerge out of group interests in the community and exert varying influences on boards of education, administrators, and staff. It requires educational leadership of a high order to harmonize conflicting individual and group concerns in the educational matrix.

Psychological Implications

The personality configuration of an educational leader includes features which have important psychological implications. An individual may be inclined toward an authoritarian approach to his task, resulting in diverse attitudes and emotional reactions among his staff members. A dynamic personality may be confused with an autocratic temperament. Initiative and resourcefulness are likely to arouse jealousies and antagonisms, even downright opposition. An educational leader may be influenced by his personal likes and dis-

⁸ Compare William A. Yeager, *School-Community Relations*, New York, Dryden Press, 1951, chap. 4; also August B. Hollingshead, *Elmstown's Youth*, New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1949.

⁹ Yeager, *op. cit.*, chap. 8.

likes, superstitions, racial background, religion, and emotions. He may react favorably to those members of his staff who are less educated than he is, and unfavorably to others who have attained a superior educational level. Any situation may be affected through a peculiar arrangement of associated psychological factors. Some superintendents have difficulty in assuming a subordinate role, especially where other members of the staff are in positions of leadership, and seek at all times to dominate a situation. Often they react differently to strong personalities and opposition in any form. The educational leader must exercise self-control at all times, a matter of transcending importance.

Group Processes in Educational Leadership

The task of thinking together and arriving at common understandings with teachers is not an easy one and requires knowledge and skills of group processes appropriate to the group and the problem. Some individuals have never learned to work with others; they insist on controlling a situation and refuse to cooperate when they cannot. Other individuals sense situations clearly, having mastered the art of social communication. The educational leader needs a proper knowledge of the essentials of group dynamics, and the ability to apply them as situations arise. He must understand his associates and exercise the dynamic forces arising out of these associations. He must know when to lead and when to develop leadership in others. Good teamwork in a staff is perhaps its best indication.

EVALUATING EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

From time to time the educational leader should evaluate his progress in the management of the school enterprise. Perhaps the best technique is through self-analysis approached through honest self-appraisal. Knowing his own strengths and weaknesses he can begin with his own self-improvement in relation to them. Another approach to an evaluation of the educational leader is through an analysis of his functions as a leader.

In Terms of Functions

Pigors¹⁰ has pointed out that the educational leader has three functions, namely to (1) initiate, (2) administer, and (3) interpret.

¹⁰ Paul Pigors, *Leadership or Domination*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935, p. 198.

The ability to initiate involves sensing the problem, choice of procedure, and preliminary activities. Following initiation, there are details to develop which assist in the solution, such as providing resources, organization of committees, provision for meetings, and advice and counsel. As the solution to the problem develops, much help will be needed in providing information, experiences, leading toward problem solution, suggestions, central ideas, and interpreting the outcome. These have been indicated here as a basis in evaluating the work of the educational leader.

In Terms of Check Lists

A third approach to evaluation is through an application of the characteristics of a good superintendent to a given situation. As an example, Weaver¹¹ has indicated ten such characteristics, in the form of a check list, all of which are concerned directly or indirectly with school personnel. A fourth and perhaps more effective method of appraisal of educational leadership is the use of a technique by means of which the individual, through self-analysis, answers certain questions which pertain specifically to his activities. Such an instrument has been proposed by the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. It consists of the following areas: (1) general self-appraisal, (2) skill in fostering group development, (3) determining and defining wants and needs, (4) planning democratically, (5) group planning, and (6) appraisal of evaluative activities.¹²

In Terms of Outcomes

The effectiveness of educational leadership in staff relationships will ultimately depend upon what happens as a result of the leader's activities as they concern each member of the staff. It should increase the powers of each member to adjust, solve problems, and grow in professional stature. It should result in better teamwork with initiative and power coming from within the group. The enterprise should move with promptness and decision, without friction

¹¹ R. B. Weaver, "Check List Showing How to Identify a Superintendent of Education," *School Executive*, 1943, p. 38.

¹² "Educational Leaders: Their Function and Preparation," National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Madison, Wis., 1948, pp. 52-56.

or delaying tactics. Consensus of judgment is a desirable outcome, having been arrived at through group deliberation in which each member has a part. If, as an ultimate outcome, the level of educational achievement has been materially raised and happiness attained thereby, the leader may be entitled to the fruits of his successes.

OBSTACLES TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Even under the most favorable circumstances, educational leadership will, from time to time, meet obstacles which are difficult, even impossible to overcome. To most superintendents these obstacles to his leadership constitute a challenge to further educational achievement; to others they create a condition of frustration, seemingly impossible to overcome. Whatever the nature of these obstacles, they should be faced with courage and be understood and overcome, if at all possible. To accomplish this outcome may require cooperative action of a high order with all members of the staff working together toward a common purpose. The chief difficulty with those unable to surmount blocks to educational leadership is the leader's inability to sense a situation, plan a course of action, and carry through to the logical outcome. Too many so-called educational leaders still believe that they can "muddle through" alone.

There are many examples of these blocks to educational leadership. They are of many sorts and different in their effects. Recurring illustrations grow out of conflicting social pressures, inadequate school services, inadequate school support, poorly prepared and low-paid staff, low staff morale, political and religious affiliations, personal antagonisms in the staff, and insidious attacks on the school sometimes leveled against individuals or groups within the schools. Blocks to educational leadership may stem from special interest groups as labor, veterans, business, bad newspaper publicity, and public indifference of long standing. Quite often, the school administrator is hindered by legal restrictions, division of authority, working schedules, and traditions. The educational leader is resourceful to the degree that he can take the initiative in removing these hindrances to his leadership through the solution of problems facing him. This text has provided many useful suggestions.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S CODE OF ETHICS

As professions have improved, codes of ethics have been adopted by the membership for the purpose of determining standards of conduct and creating a certain solidarity among the members. The movement has extended to business and related groups. Several hundred such codes are now in existence, the oldest being that of the medical profession dating from the famous oath of Hippocrates of ancient origin. In an earlier chapter we have discussed the development of codes of ethics for teachers.

Recently, a code of ethics for administrators has been developed by Reeder¹³ for the purpose of comparing their professional status and providing standards of conduct. This code consists of two major divisions: (1) relations with pupils and to the community and state (seven sections), and (2) relations to the professions (nineteen sections). The second of these two sections is of particular interest here since it contains many suggestions pertaining to staff personnel administration. Among these are procedures for seeking a position and a promotion, contractual obligations, transaction of school business, professional information, personal credit, accepting gifts, criticisms, and professional deportment. The code has considerable merit and should be adopted for more general use.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In closing this chapter, it is important to point out the strategic relationship of educational leadership to the administration of staff personnel, especially the teaching staff. The teacher has a right to expect kindly, sympathetic, constructive leadership in the person designated by the board of education for this purpose. Because of his superior qualifications and authority, he should be expected to give it. At the same time the perplexing tasks of the educational leader should be realized, as he endeavors to develop an educational program fitted to desirable community living. It is hardly possible to expect quality in a school system superior to the quality of the educational leader, unless he surrenders his position of leadership to other members of his staff better qualified to assume it. One of the

¹³ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1951, pp. 34-37.

best tests of his leadership is the discovery and utilization of abilities for the tasks to be performed accompanied by delegated responsibility for their accomplishment.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Construct your own definition of educational leadership and compare it with definitions in the chapter or others that you can find in the literature.
2. Compare two superintendents of schools or two principals, one of high quality and the other of low quality. What are their distinguishing characteristics as to leadership?
3. Examine the legal basis of a superintendent of schools in your state. What are its characteristics?
4. Make a list of the relationships a selected educational leader has with his staff. Compare these with his principals, and custodians.
5. What should be the desirable level of preparation of a county superintendent? city superintendent? principal? supervisor? business manager? others?
6. Rank in order as to effectiveness several techniques for improvement in service of an educational leader.
7. Give an example of the improvement of staff personnel through the use of group processes.
8. Evaluate yourself as an educational leader using one of the proposed check lists. What are your strengths and weaknesses? What can you do about them?
9. Evaluate Reeder's code of ethics for administrators.

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*Organization for Personnel
Administration*

AS THE responsibilities and functions of the educational leader increase in number and complexity, it becomes necessary to delegate certain of them to staff members who are qualified to assume these responsibilities and advise with the superintendent. Since many of the functions and procedures of staff personnel administration are highly specialized, they require technical administration for which specialized training and experience become necessary. In order to provide adequately for this administrative responsibility so important in the educational enterprise, larger school systems have organized personnel departments staffed by a director and/or assistants, and sufficient clerical and other assistance to administer each assigned function adequately.

This chapter describes the organization for personnel administration. It stresses the need for such organization, its objectives and procedures, with variations as to size of district and assigned functions. The personnel director is described as to qualifications and duties, with emphasis on the critical nature of his responsibilities. Emphasis is laid on the various relationships with other departments, and on records, reports, and research activities. The function and activities of state and intermediate agencies are indicated. The chapter closes with a summary of progress in the administration of personnel in business and industry which can be applied to the organization and administration of staff personnel in the educational enterprise.

NEED FOR PERSONNEL ORGANIZATION: ITS OBJECTIVES

Need

The personnel function includes many activities and applies numerous complex procedures as developed in this text. Their increasing complexity and associated problems are a matter of much concern in the administration of education and suggest the need for an adequate organization in order to provide for them. This means that each element in desirable personnel administration must be located definitely, administered either by the educational leader, or delegated by him to a member of the staff. In its administration the function should be defined carefully and balanced with other functions and activities. The size of district will be a determining factor as to the nature and scope of the function and services rendered. Policies of the board and executive staff will affect the organization. Varying local conditions will be contributing factors, as will community pressures and relationships. State laws, regulations, and traditional policies should be understood and applied. Whatever the conditions, location of this responsibility with an adequate organization for the administration of personnel is essential, adapted to the size of the district and its problems.

Objectives

The objectives of the personnel function do not differ materially whether they concern employees in any enterprise. Personnel problems in business and industry, as in most professions, have many elements in common with education. While each must be administered in accordance with the peculiarities and temperament of the members of the several groups concerned, much can be learned for the administration of the staff personnel function in the organizational patterns of all groups.

Broadly speaking, one may say that the objectives to be attained in desirable personnel administration are (1) the effective utilization of all human resources associated with the enterprise, (2) the maintenance of desirable working relationships among all of its members, and (3) the development of maximum individual attainment and efficiency to the end that the enterprise prospers and human happiness prevails.

Now these are broad objectives. They require for their attainment the selection of capable persons, the utilization of their best efforts, and the maintenance of a high level of cooperation and morale. Generally speaking, these objectives apply in the administration of any enterprise where the problems and outcomes are similar. The student of personnel administration should have an awareness of these broad objectives and procedures wherever found, and utilize them in the administration of the personnel function.

THE SIZE OF THE DISTRICT AS A DETERMINANT

Planning for All Functions

In the previous chapter emphasis was laid on the scope and significance of educational leadership in the administration of the personnel function. The functions which the educational leader performs do not differ essentially whether the district is large or small, metropolitan or rural. However, they do differ in complexity with the size of the system. Because fewer teachers are involved, it does not mean that any personnel function should be omitted or even neglected. It does mean that these tasks are differently provided for. Accordingly, proper planning for the personnel function should always be associated with the size of the system and the appropriate organization which may be developed to administer each function effectively.

Principles of Organization

The purpose of an organization is to facilitate the process of getting things done through proper administration. The organization is the framework. It designates responsibility in relation to function and allocates the specific duties to be performed. Three principles have been proposed as essential to any organization which apply to the personnel function. These are (1) span of control, (2) delegation, and (3) leadership.¹ The first pertains to limitations placed upon the scope of the control and with those persons with whom one deals in the administration of the enterprise. The second in-

¹ National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency, Thirtieth Yearbook*, Washington, D.C., The Association, 1952. This is an excellent chapter on the principles of organization and their application.

volves clarity of assignment, whether it is retained or given to another. It includes responsibility for the function and authority to proceed within the framework of the policy. It includes the authority to make decisions where necessary, as well as loyalty to one's superior as well as staff. The third emphasizes the leadership function, to initiate actions, to generate enthusiasm, to develop morale, to resolve differences, and to get things done.

Fitting the Type of Organization

In planning for the administration of the organization of the personnel function, the educational leader must determine the type of organization best fitted to the school system and local conditions. This will vary by size of district. It will be affected by geographical factors, nature of community as metropolitan or rural, population characteristics, enrollments, nature of personnel problems, funds available, board controls, and the leader's own attitudes and idiosyncrasies. Whatever the size of the school system and its peculiar conditions, both the essential principles of a good organization and the inclusion of all personnel functions within it should be present. It is well to review the most important of these functions, namely recruitment, supply and demand, preparation, selection, orientation, assignment, promotion, in-service education including supervision, compensation, participation in policy making, records, dismissal, tenure, retirement, and ethics.

Smaller Districts

In smaller districts where there is neither principal nor superintendent having direct oversight, the board of education assumes many personnel functions. The professional staff is employed by the board and often assigned by it. Salaries are fixed in accordance with a schedule, if in operation. Other problems concerning personnel are administered through direct board action, usually the secretary. The office of the county superintendent or similar officers may exercise some administrative responsibility. However this is usually remote, and generally unsatisfactory. Teachers without direct administrative oversight need to find ways of solving their problems if they are solved at all. Much criticism of the schools has resulted from poor administration of those functions which pertain to personnel.

Emergence of Executive Officer's Leadership

Upon the appointment of an executive officer, such as a supervising principal or superintendent, it becomes his duty to assume responsibility for the administration of the personnel function. Boards of education are often unwilling to relinquish their traditional duties, especially if well entrenched or political implications are prevalent. The executive in these situations should proceed slowly, perhaps at first sharing responsibilities, assuming them more fully as occasions indicate.

There are many responsibilities which must be administered within the framework of state law and regulations, such as certification, salaries, and tenure. These may create opportunities for leadership, often requiring board action for approval of policies. The educational leader should assume responsibility for selection, assignment, and in-service improvement of teachers. As he develops his organization, other opportunities will emerge as a part of his administrative duties. He must, of necessity, maintain a close relationship with his board, especially certain members, because of their strategic positions and the political or social implications which are difficult to avoid. Gradually, confidence will be reposed in him as he gains in confidence and experience. The development of a true educational leader depends largely on his skill in meeting situations with courage and improves the schools thereby.

The Medium-Sized District

As school systems increase in size, the number and variety of personnel increases. The superintendent's position as the personnel officer takes on additional responsibilities. It becomes his duty to determine personnel policies and plan cooperatively with the board of education, his staff, and his teachers along many lines. The personnel function assumes greater complexity as a "constellation of tasks." The superintendent must now share or assign responsibilities to principals, supervisors, and staff officers. He may assign some of these duties to a secretary, such as substitutes, records, payroll, and such other duties of a clerical nature. The contacts of the superintendent with all personnel in medium-sized districts usually remain direct and personal. He retains direct control over procedures and assumes responsibility for all final decisions. The staff is likely to

contact him frequently, and, as he is approachable, they find access to him professionally and socially.

The Larger District

The point at which a medium-size school district emerges into a larger school district is difficult to determine; but for all practical purposes, such a level is reached when there are at least two hundred teachers with a proportional number of all other employees. At this point, it becomes necessary for the superintendent to delegate a portion, perhaps most of the personnel functions, to staff officers and to assign further responsibility for those activities which are of a clerical nature. Good procedure requires that the board of education retain authority in approving policies and advising with the superintendent; however, the board should exercise no direct administrative oversight pertaining to personnel, since it is strictly a professional function.

In larger school systems, the importance of operating within a framework of policies, rules, and regulations is obvious. While the personnel officer may be clothed at this stage with the power to make some decisions, to do so he must maintain the full confidence both of the staff and the superintendent, with whom he must frequently confer.

In large school systems, the "constellation of tasks" and the multiplicity of staff problems complicate the task of the personnel officer. He is faced with a diversified staff to administer. There are problems in the administration of salary schedules, extra-duty compensation, assignments, dismissals, and retirements. The teachers are likely to be more sensitive to their problems and to make demands through their associations or committees. Pressure groups are more likely to vex with their inquiries and veiled attacks. Communities within communities tend to rally about the individual schools to which they send their children. This is a desirable characteristic generally, but it can rebound unfortunately at inopportune times, as for example when a teacher or custodian is dismissed for inefficiency. As the large school district becomes a city of major size, more and more functions are assigned to associates, and the personnel officer becomes a department. Whatever the nature of the organization for personnel administration and the size of the school system, the personnel functions should be conceived as a means to

an end and not as ends in themselves. They should be administered in terms of individual teacher development, in relation to the common objectives of the whole educational enterprise.

THE PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

In a large city school system the educational leader is required to administer many functions of his office. He must delegate many of these to staff members, with responsibility assigned for faithful performance. The personnel function is one that can be delegated to a member of the staff, who administers the specific function assigned through a departmental organization. Because of the strategic importance and the problems of the personnel function, the staff member's relationships with his chief executive officer should be cooperative and confidential. He advises with and reports to the superintendent who confirms decisions and determines the manner of directives. The personnel officer operates by objective evidence and persuasion rather than by authority. Through sound procedures and fair consideration he is in a strategic position to sustain efficiency and maintain good morale.

Objectives and Functions of a Personnel Department

Desirable objectives should be set up to clarify the organization of the personnel department and serve as controls for the functions to be performed. These should be planned by the superintendent and his staff in cooperation with the director and approved by the board of education. The following are suggested objectives and functions of a personnel department. It is not to be presumed that these will apply in every situation. Adaptation will need to be made to local situations, depending on size of the staff to be administered and local problems.

The objectives of the personnel department should be:

1. To plan for the over-all policy of personnel administration within the school system and designate the functions to be performed. This is the responsibility of the superintendent in cooperation with the staff members and the board of education.
2. To locate responsibility for those functions of personnel administration which are (a) retained by the chief executive officer, and (b) delegated to the personnel officer. This anticipates the selection of a

well-qualified personnel director who is given adequate authority within the framework of personnel policy.

3. To set up an organization designed to facilitate the administration of all functions previously determined and assigned to this division.
4. To determine cooperatively the techniques necessary to administer any assigned function, such as examinations, evaluation, and in-service education.
5. To plan such cooperative relationships with other staff members, line officers, and teachers which will be necessary in improving the staff in service, such as workshops and supervision.
6. To administer procedures pertaining to (a) staff recruitment and selection; (b) certification within the framework of state laws and regulations; (c) eligibility lists; (d) assignment, transfer, promotion, and dismissal; (e) salary adjustments; (f) substitute service; (g) leaves of absence; (h) teacher health problems (in cooperation with the division of health); (i) retirement; and (j) cooperation with higher institutions, as concerning practice teachers and in-service education.
7. To develop a system of personnel records, and become the repository for all documents and correspondence pertaining to the personnel division.
8. To report regularly to the superintendent concerning those responsibilities assigned to his office, especially problems requiring his attention.
9. To advise the superintendent concerning changes in policy as well as matters pertaining to the administration of the office.
10. To conduct studies and engage in research and experimentation in activities associated with personnel.
11. To receive teacher requests, problems, and complaints, and to investigate all matters pertaining thereto.
12. To coordinate other services and agencies directly associated with the personnel function, such as teacher committees, educational departments of higher institutions, and placement agencies, and in the community.

Qualifications of the Personnel Director

The personnel director should be carefully selected for his position. He should be mature and well educated. He should have had some teaching and administrative experience, and a thorough knowledge of sound personnel procedures in education. He should be well versed in personnel procedures in business and industry. He should be thoroughly familiar with educational objectives and the

educational program. He should be of pleasing personality, sociable by nature, able to meet people easily so as to inspire and retain confidence. He should be a good speaker and organizer. He should be intelligent, free of prejudice, professionally minded, and cooperative. He should have the rank of an assistant superintendent or the equivalent. While the choice of a personnel officer may be made from within the school system, the basis of selection should have one major consideration, namely ability to organize and administer the activities of a personnel program and to work closely with the administrator. If a man with these qualifications is not available within the school system, he should be sought elsewhere.

Organization of the Division

The form of the organization of the personnel department will depend upon the size and diversity of the staff to be administered and the allocation of responsibilities to be performed. In a smaller city, a director assisted by one or more clerks should be able to perform assigned functions. In large cities, a division of responsibility will be necessary to include assistant directors (1) in charge of instructional staff, and (2) in charge of noninstructional staff including clerical employees. Custodians may be included within this department or may be administered by the business division depending upon administrative policy, with preference to include them in the personnel division. Another method of assignment of duty may be responsibility pertaining to (1) selection, certification, orientation, and assignment, and (2) in-service education, dismissal, retirement, and tenure.² The director may retain certain functions as his personal responsibility and distribute others to assistant directors or his clerical assistants. He is directly responsible for the organization and functional arrangement of his department, co-operating with the superintendent in policy making and final decisions. However, it is his primary responsibility to meet situations as they arise and get things done.

Secretarial Assistants

Sufficient secretarial assistance should be assigned to the personnel department to relieve the director for executive oversight. Secretaries

² These divisions of responsibility are suggestions and not meant to be inclusive of all assigned functions of a personnel department.

can be developed to assume responsibilities for records, certification, substitutes, preparation of lists of teachers, filing, mail, routine correspondence and reports, telephone, answering routine questions, and compiling statistics. A secretary in this department meets numerous persons, many of whom come while under emotional stress. She must be tactful and considerate. A good secretary of these qualities who has mastered the routines of the office is invaluable and is an important factor in the efficiency of the department.

CRITICAL NATURE OF RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

In the administration of a personnel department, certain responsibilities appear to have critical significance when viewed in the light of the administration of the school system as a whole. The efficiency of the school system may depend upon how well these functions are administered by the department. Several of these will be discussed.

Policy

Ordinarily, the determination of policy is a prerogative of the chief executive officer and the board of education. There are many occasions where policies are adopted which affect the personnel. These may be developed cooperatively with the staff, teachers, and board of education, and should be if of a critical nature. For example: salary policies may affect morale, especially if related to merit in some form. Some situation may arise requiring immediate decision, which if undertaken hastily results in unfortunate precedent. In case of doubt, a personnel director should not assume this responsibility without full support. Once established, however, policies must be administered fairly and without prejudice.

Supply and Demand

The personnel department should maintain accurate records as to supply and demand of all staff employees. Failure to maintain an accurate supply from which selection may be made may result in the employment of unqualified teachers and other employees.

Selection of Employees

The selection of employees is an important prerogative of the personnel department. Selective examining is the principal tech-

nique used, based on combined results of the National Teachers' Examination, interviews, personal characteristics, recommendations, demonstration teaching, and official records. Eligibility lists are prepared from the composite ratings and results. The determination of these lists is of critical importance in order to provide the best qualified personnel and avoid criticism and jealousy. Even with great care there is always the possibility of ill-advised selection.

Selection of Administrative Personnel

Since the success of any enterprise depends so much upon the nature and quality of its educational leadership, forethought should always be taken when vacancies occur. The selection of top leadership is a board of education responsibility, with wise choice made from within or without the system. In any school system there is always the natural desire for advancement, and if qualified, meritorious service should be rewarded.

While the responsibility for preselection and preparation of educational leadership is a university function, the educational leader should be given considerable discretion in selecting his administrative personnel; mainly, principals, supervisors, and staff directors. These positions should be identified in the organization chart, qualifications determined, and duties assigned. In their selection, procedures should be set up with a view to securing the best qualified personnel. Examinations should be held and eligibility lists determined. There is probably greater pressure and dissatisfaction in the selection of administrative personnel than with other staff members.

The Probationary Period

The mechanics for the administration of the teacher's probationary period would appear to be the responsibility of the personnel division. However, they should work closely with those in charge of direct supervision. Some duties pertain directly to the personnel department, as assignment, evaluation, records, and reports. Due notice should be given each teacher as the law requires and good practice indicates.

Evaluation of Efficiency

Perhaps the most difficult assignment of the personnel division is the determination of efficiency of employees, although it may be

shared. Measures of efficiency are necessary for promotion, salary advancement, certification, and special assignments. Perhaps no single function of personnel administration is subject to more criticism and emotional reaction. Much progress has been made in this area. Best promise of successful plans is through cooperative plans of teacher evaluation, such as developed in Cincinnati.

Salary Adjustments

No difficulty should ordinarily be encountered in the administration of the salary schedule if it is properly constructed. However, there are points in its administration which may require careful consideration and good judgment. Some examples include transfer, merit rating, increments, and extra-duty remunerations. New teachers may be brought into the system and placed on the salary scale on levels to which they are not ordinarily entitled. It may be necessary to advance a teacher on the schedule to retain him. These are danger points.

Transfer

In large school systems, there are many instances in which it is desirable to transfer teachers to another school or position for the good of the system. Such transfer may require careful consideration. In some instances it may bring about hardship and unhappiness, requiring the teacher to travel long distances. Transfer may be necessitated because of a shortage of teachers, due to certification deficiencies.

Dismissal

Actions brought against teachers for any infraction of law or contract require evidence for sustaining the charges. The assemblage of such evidence is largely the responsibility of the personnel department. It includes efficiency records, supervision reports, contract stipulations, written and other reports, and the records of the employee. Such evidence should be compiled with care and submitted in accord with the rules of evidence. Cases involving dismissal are distasteful and the outcome in any event is not always pleasant. However, the personnel department may not evade its responsibility. It must carefully balance fairness to the employee with the welfare of the school system.

Conflicts

Great care should be maintained by the personnel division with respect to the possibility of overlapping function with another department or officer, especially where there is dual responsibility or poorly defined functions. Examples pertain to principals of the several schools in matters of supervision, transfer of teachers, and recommendations. There are always possible points of conflict where decisions are overruled by the superintendent and the board of education. Personality conflicts are difficult and must be resolved. The superintendent may be called upon to assume a function originally delegated because of some inefficiency or lack of confidence. These situations are distressing and result in lowered morale.

RELATIONS WITH OTHER GROUPS

Within many school systems there are other groups which have some relationship to personnel function. Among those discussed are (1) board of examiners, (2) the teacher association, (3) teacher unions, and (4) colleges and universities.

Board of Examiners

In some school systems provision is made for a board of examiners which is made responsible for the administration of certain aspects of the personnel function.³ For the most part, this function pertains to selection of employees; however, its influence may extend beyond. Such boards receive applications, conduct examinations, set up eligibility lists of teachers, administrative groups, and noninstructional employees, determine their qualifications, and administer the procedure by which selection takes place. In some instances they determine the requirements for positions, evaluate credentials, and pronounce important policies pertaining to such matters as placement, salary adjustment, and retirement. It is interesting to know that in the Washington survey, it was recommended that the board of examiners should function under the associate superintendent in charge of personnel.⁴

³ *Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia*, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1949, pp. 86-97.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 34-35.

Teachers' Advisory Committees

In some instances, teachers' associations have established advisory committees designed to protect the interests of teachers and advise with the administration on personnel matters. Through these committees contacts are made with the superintendent and the personnel division in such matters as salaries, working conditions, in-service education, tenure, and grievances of various sorts. Policies and procedures may be worked out cooperatively with such committees.

Teachers' Unions

Where an organization of teachers has been established in any school district affiliated with a labor organization, it may become necessary to treat with their official representatives. Ordinarily there would appear to be no obligation of responsible administrative officers to engage in conferences of this nature. Occasionally threats are made and pressures exerted, even unfair authority reposed by law or administrative practice. In dealing with these matters the larger interest of all staff members and all the boys and girls should receive the major attention.

Colleges and Universities

Relationships have been established in some school systems with college and university authorities which pertain directly to the administration of teacher personnel. Examples of such relationships are assignment of practice teachers, in-service education, dual use of personnel, use of school as a laboratory, internship programs, and study councils. It is important that proper understanding be reached through established policy.

RECORDS

The personnel department should be the repository for all records and other information concerning each staff member and employee within the school system. Unless mandated by law, proper forms should be prepared by the director or under his supervision. The assignment of the function to a clerical employee should include emphasis on accurate information, proper form, proper filing, and good indexing. Since this information may be needed at a moment's

notice, the system should be simple and the material readily obtainable.

The record form for each teacher should be carefully prepared and adapted to the school system. Care should be taken to include information required by law or by resolution of the board. These records should be accessible to the principal, teachers, as well as staff members, although there is always the question of accessibility to certain confidential information as recommendations and ratings.

In general the following records should be available for each person employed in the school system.

1. *Personal*—age, sex, marital status, race, religion, sociocultural background, health status, and statements of fitness to teach.
2. *Education*—scholastic record of high school and institutions of high education, with dates attended, courses taken, curriculum completed, standing, and degrees granted.
3. *Certification*—complete certificate record including titles, scope, dates granted, renewals, additions, and dates of expiration.
4. *Professional experience*—name of district, dates, grade, and subjects taught, and activities engaged in, with success record, any unusual professional activity recorded, and recommendations.
5. *Other experience*—any experiences outside of professional experiences with success record if available, and statements.
6. *Employment within the district*—schools assigned, grades or subjects administered or other duties, professional services, activity record, and success record.
7. *Other records*—other information such as community activities, social activities, professional activities in state, national, or other organization, travel, and any records designed to point out peculiar fitness.
8. *Correspondence file*—all correspondence pertaining to the staff member, such as application, examination records, communications, and all other correspondence.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

The research activities of the personnel division previously mentioned should not be overlooked. Studies should be made of the division's principal activities over a period of years showing progress made and suggested improvements. To do this effectively, the personnel director and his associates need to have a constant awareness of the best practices in personnel administration. In fact it

should be his responsibility to advise the superintendent constantly of best personnel practices in education, business, industry and the armed services. He should cooperate with other school systems in supplying information upon request and assist in significant group researches. He should engage each year in one or more experimental activities, and be willing to make available and apply the benefits of his findings. To this end the personnel director should have had specific training in research techniques and develop a willingness to accept facts and abide by results.

THE PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN RELATION TO THE STATE AND THE INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT

The State

Since education is a function of a state, it is apparent that there are certain concepts and relationships on this level which are associated with the personnel function. The degree of success possible of attainment in the operation of the educational function locally is contingent upon certain policies and practices at the state level. In administering these functions, the state may be limited to (1) the development of policy and the issuance of directives, (2) suggestive information, (3) advisory services, (4) direct administration, and (5) research activities. These will vary at the state level in accordance with the general pattern of a particular state, as highly centralized or decentralized.

The following personnel activities and services may be performed at the state level.

1. *Legal status and designation of personnel.* The law may designate the personnel to be employed and define their duties and qualifications.
2. *Supply and demand.* Maintenance of a balance between the demand and supply of personnel, such as teachers.
3. *Professional education.* Setting up the professional qualifications of personnel, accrediting institutions for their preparation, and adopting policies which affect their preparation.
4. *Certification.* Setting up license controls, including standards, form and scope of certificates, duration, and relation to other educational functions, as salaries and duties.
5. *Teacher load.* Maintaining effective instruction through appropriate

- teaching load standards, and integrating these with appropriations, etc.
- 6. *Placement.* Maintaining placement services.
- 7. *Tenure.* Definition of tenure and determination of certain controls over dismissal and other phases, as hearings.
- 8. *Retirement.* Definition of retirement and administrative procedures.
- 9. *Salaries.* Setting up minimum salaries and salary schedules, and relating them to other personnel functions as preparation and certification.
- 10. *Research activities.* Engaging in studies which seek to solve problems and provide information and better local practices.

It is obvious that the level of educational attainment in any state may depend greatly upon the policies adopted with reference to personnel functions and the efficiency of their administration. As indicated above, the degree of centralization of the function will be an important factor. State responsibility should extend to policy and the establishment of general controls. Direct administration is desirable in such functions as preparation, certification, and retirement.

The Intermediate School District

The intermediate school district has been emerging as a service unit of school administration between the local district and the state. While the county superintendency from which it emerged has been in operation for a century or more, this area of service is evolving into a unit of administration whose function is to perform certain educational functions for which the local district is too small or ill adapted, and the state too remote. In some states, especially as local school districts are merged and local school opportunities and services extended, there is need to determine the nature and extent of these services and the personnel required. This is a newer development in personnel administration.

The personnel function of the intermediate school district may be of two types: (1) decentralization of certain state personnel functions under state controls in order to reduce remoteness and accelerate action; and (2) direct administration and oversight of certain personnel functions, either formerly a part of local administration or recently developed to provide extended services to pupils. In the first type examples are school planning, buildings, certifica-

tion, placement information, and curriculum advisement. In the second instance, provision for special services which cannot be provided on the local level may be provided on the intermediate level, such as visual aids, psychological and testing services, adult education, certain health services, vocational education, and certain supervisory services. These services require specialized personnel with adequate training and designated responsibility to prevent overlapping of function. This list is not meant to be complete since much needs to be done to clarify the size of local units and the educational functions to be performed, and adjust the needed additional education services on the intermediate level. Much progress has been made in certain states, such as New York and California, in clarifying these functions and services. As these develop they should be consistent with the over-all functions of the intermediate unit, which are generally accepted to be (1) educational leadership, (2) specialized educational services, and (3) certain administrative services for districts unable to provide them especially in rural areas, as purchasing, accounting, and vocational education.⁵

LESSONS FROM BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

Directors of school administrators can learn much from progress made in business and industry in personnel administration. While personnel directors in these areas are concerned with different problems and practices because of the presence of such factors as the profit motive, sharp competition, and union relationships, the goals to be achieved are, in the main, identical, namely, getting effective results with people and maintaining good morale. Both are concerned with human relationships, and the development of knowledges, skills, and human happiness among those employed. Both utilize all resources available to attain these ends.

In business and industry the principal functions of personnel administration are (1) to formulate policies and to advise and counsel the line organization, (2) to diagnose problems of the personnel and identify those problems that need attention, (3) to provide personnel procedures and services in getting effective results, and (4) to coordinate activities dealing with all personnel groups in the interest

⁵ Consult "The Emerging Intermediate District" and bibliography (pp. 120-146), *Yearbook, The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, February, 1950.

of fairness to all and the good of the enterprise. To accomplish these objectives Pigors and Myers⁶ suggest the following procedures and services as the responsibilities of the personnel department: (1) recruitment, selection, and placement; (2) employee training and induction; (3) employee rating and promotion; (4) transfer, downgrading, and layoff; (5) discipline and discharge; (6) wage policies and wage administration; (7) methods of wage payment; (8) changes as work assignment and hours; (9) services to employees; (10) employee health and safety; and (11) employee participation in production problems.

The student of personnel administration in education should be familiar with the extensive literature and practices in this field and apply these practices and procedures wherever feasible to educational personnel. In the last analysis human relationships are similar and much can be learned from progress in many fields.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of functions in the administration of staff personnel. In a school district of selected size, which of these would you (a) assign to the personnel director? (b) retain in the superintendent's office? Defend your selection.
2. Draw up organization charts which might be applicable to medium, large, and very large cities, and a large county, and develop the organization for the personnel function.
3. Describe the physical layout of a personnel department.
4. Describe the qualifications of an efficient director of personnel.
5. What personnel functions can properly be assigned to (a) a good secretary? (b) a clerk?
6. Write a paper on the organization and administration of staff personnel in a large city of your choice. Evaluate your findings in accordance with the suggestions in the chapter.
7. Make a chart listing personnel functions which more properly belong to (a) a local school system, (b) intermediate districts, and (c) the state.
8. Outline five policies which you would adopt as controls for the personnel director.
9. Compare the personnel director of a large corporation with the director of personnel in a large city school system. What do they have in common? What differences?

⁶ Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1951, pp. 21-23.

10. Make a list of lessons which a personnel director in education may learn from business and industry. How can these be applied? What can business and industry learn from education?
11. Rank in order the three most important functions of a personnel director and defend your choice. Which is his most difficult?
12. Make a list of ten studies which a personnel director might conduct during any one year. How would you go about undertaking them? Which of these should be appropriate for doctorate dissertations?

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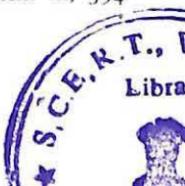
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